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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

COMMUNICATION OF EMPATHY

by



GLENN DARYLL HUNDLEBY

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled COMMUNICATION OF EMPATHY submitted by GLENN DARYLL HUNDLEBY in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, in Counseling Psychology.

ABSTRACT

It was the purpose of this study to investigate whether individuals who are taught to communicate understanding and empathy are more successful in specific interview situations than individuals who do not receive such training.

Subjects were 55 grade twelve students enrolled in two separate classes. Assignment of students to these classes, which were selected from a compulsory course for all grade 12 students, was done by computer in order to accommodate individual timetables. Students in one class constituted the treatment group while students in the other class became the control group.

The treatment consisted of fourteen 80-minute lessons which were based on skills of listening, observing and communicating. Most lessons included extensive role-playing activities, which emphasized learning through self-experience. The training program was gathered and developed by the present writer, and is entitled CUE: Communicating Understanding and Empathy.

Treatment effects were assessed through a procedure which involved a series of post-treatment interviews. In each case, a student from the treatment group was randomly paired with a student from the control group. A common interviewer then interviewed each student independently for a period of 20 minutes. Outcome evaluation was based on the choices made by two different types of interviewers: (a) trained interviewers who chose the "better communicator" in each pair, and (b) student peer interviewers who chose "someone I could go and talk to" from each pair.

Altogether, 57 pairs of students were interviewed, making a total of 228 individual interviews.

Further comparisons were made between the treatment and control groups using communicated empathy (CE) scores. These scores were obtained from the High School Communication Index, which was administered before and after the treatment period.

The results of the study supported the main hypothesis: both the trained interviewers and the student peer interviewers chose treatment students significantly more often than control students. Other findings showed that:

- treatment students scored higher on communicated empathy than control students;
- students chosen by trained interviewers, and by student peer interviewers, scored higher on communicated empathy than students not chosen;
- there is a significant positive relationship between being chosen by a trained interviewer and being chosen by a student peer interviewer.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Some people are very sensitive to cues as to how others are feeling and reacting, while other individuals appear to be grossly unaware of the thoughts and feelings of those around them. This ability "to see things from the other person's point of view," while not assuring greater respect or admiration for that person, does ensure more effective communication and understanding (Dymond, 1950). The term used to characterize this ability is "empathy".

Purpose of This Study

People need the empathy of other people (Chessick, 1965). Indeed, empathy:

. . . becomes for us a source of personal reassurance. We are reassured when we feel that someone has succeeded in feeling himself into our state of mind. We enjoy the satisfaction of being understood and accepted as a person. It is important for us to sense that the other person not only understands our words but appreciates the person behind the message as well When friends fail to empathize we feel disappointed and rejected. We want people to listen to us empathically, even if they are familiar with what we are going to say. We look for a feeling response and when that is lacking, we feel something is wrong with the personal relationship. When empathy is lacking, our self-awareness and self-respect are diminished. We then experience ourselves more as objects and less as persons (Katz, 1963, pp.7-8).

The importance of empathy as a therapist variable in psychotherapy and psychoanalysis has long been recognized (Fiedler, 1950b, 1951; Fromm-Reichman, 1950). However, it should be emphasized that the empathic skill of the practitioner, as distinguished from his training

in diagnosis, is something he shares in degree with every man.

According to Carl Rogers:

. . . the therapeutic relationship is only a special instance of interpersonal relationships in general, and that the same lawfulness governs all such relationships (Rogers, 1961, p.39).

In his private life, the therapist's needs for empathy resemble those of the layman in that they both require the empathic skills necessary for effective communication, for realistic and appropriate behavior, and for spontaneous participation in the familial, social, and occupational groups to which they belong (Katz, 1963). It is through training and experience that the professional learns to empathize more freely, and to correct distortions and blocks in the use of whatever empathic abilities he might possess.

Several studies (Berenson, Carkhuff and Myrus, 1966; Reddy, 1968; Jordan, 1969; Carkhuff and Banks, 1970; Truax and Lister, 1971) have shown that laymen can also learn skills which appear to facilitate the use of, or enhance their present empathic abilities. The assumption is that empathic skills may benefit the layman in his relationships with others much in the same way that such skills provide for a good therapeutic relationship. However, this assumption is largely untested.

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether individuals who receive training in empathic skills are more successful in specific interview situations than persons who do not receive such training.

The Problem

Familiar as the term may be, theorists and researchers are far from agreement as to the meaning of "empathy" (Katz, 1963). Indeed,

they have debated long but inconclusively about empathy as a cognitive affective, or even psychic technique.

Whether empathy is a product of biological endowment or is derived from socialization and learning processes, or is a combination of both factors, is not conclusive. If one were to accept the possibility of some innate potentiality for empathy, then attempts to train or develop such a trait could prove difficult to justify. In fact, Dymond (1949) has reported evidence that individuals vary in their capacity for empathy even when the variable of "social situation" is controlled. The present study addresses itself to the possibility that even if an individual cannot be taught to be more empathic, he can be taught to observe and to listen, and in so doing become more aware of the thoughts and feelings of others. Essentially, it is hypothesized that individuals who are taught to communicate this awareness or understanding are perceived as being more empathic than individuals who have not received such training.

The experimental design involves two groups of grade twelve high school students. One group receives training in skills designed to improve the communication of empathy. The other group acts as a control group and does not receive such training. The analysis of this study is based on the following research questions:

1. Are students, who receive training in skills designed to increase their ability to communicate empathy selected by trained interviewers more often as being "better communicators" than students not receiving such training?

and,

2. Are students, who receive training in skills designed to increase their ability to communicate empathy, chosen more often by peers as "someone I could go and talk to" than students not receiving such training?

CHAPTER II

Review of the Relevant Literature

Non-Empirical Views

Historical Aspects of Empathy

Laymen, as well as philosophers, psychologists, sociologists, and members of the helping professions, are all familiar with the term "empathy". It is well known to artists and dramatists as well. It is generally and somewhat loosely taken to refer to nonverbal communication, and to the apprehension of inner emotional states. Yet, empathy remains a pervasive and puzzling phenomenon. Of empathy, Harry Stack Sullivan wrote:

I have had a good deal of trouble at times with people of a certain type of educational history; since they cannot refer empathy to vision, hearing, or some other special sense receptor, and since they do not know whether it is transmitted by ether waves or air waves or what not, they find it hard to accept the idea of empathy So, although empathy may sound mysterious, remember that there is much that sounds mysterious in the universe, only you have gotten used to it; and perhaps you will get used to empathy (1953, p.41-42).

The modern use of the term originated with the German psychologist Theodore Lipps, who published a description of a process of aesthetic appreciation in 1897. He used the term "Einfühlung" to designate losing self-awareness on the part of an observer as he confronts a painting or a piece of sculpture; and a tendency of the subject to fuse with the object that absorbs his attention. Edward Titchner of Cornell introduced "empathy" as an English equivalent for the original German (Katz, 1963).

Perhaps no author emphasizes the importance of empathy in his psychological theories as Harry Stack Sullivan. Although never really defining the term, he spoke of empathy developing through "induction", and referred to how the tension of anxiety present in the mother "induces" anxiety in the infant (Chessick, 1965). Sullivan indicated that:

Empathy is the term used to refer to the peculiar emotional linkage that subtends the relationship of the infant with other significant people. Long before there are any signs of understanding of emotional expression there is evidence of this emotional contagion or communion. We do not know much about the fate of empathy in the developmental history of people in general. There are indications that it endures throughout life, at least in some people (quoted in Blisten, 1953, p.79).

George H. Mead, a philosopher and social psychologist did not use the term "empathy" specifically, although he describes the process under his conception of role-taking. He writes:

We feel with him and are able so to feel ourselves into the other because we have, by our own attitude, aroused in ourselves the attitude of the person we are assisting (Mead, 1934, p.299).

Another social psychologist, influenced by Mead, described this same process as one:

. . . by which a person momentarily pretends to himself that he is another person, projects himself into the perceptual field of the other person; imaginatively puts himself in the other person's place, in order that he may get an insight into the other person's probable behavior in a given situation (Coutu, 1951, p.180).

Role-taking involves thinking and feeling as one believes the other person thinks and feels -- a form of empathy or what might be called synconation (Coutu, 1951, p.182).

In his treatise on empathy, Katz offers the following description:

In a face-to-face encounter we feel the contagion of the attitudes and feelings of the other person Our

response is triggered by cues in the conversation or by impressions we receive of the state of mind or feeling of the other person. We assimilate this information without being aware of doing so. We pick up the signals through a kind of inner radar and certain changes in our emotional state make themselves felt (Katz, 1963, pp.4-5).

Thus, empathy is seen as:

. . . a power "to feel with" an ever-increasing number of fellow human beings, not only to receive love and care but to love and be loved in a wide-ranging fellowship of mutual support and appreciation (Overstreet, 1952, p.10).

Counselors and therapists are probably the most deliberate and the most disciplined users of empathy. Freud (1921) suggested that our understanding of a person who has little emotional significance for us is brought about by a process of empathy which involves inference and mimicry; but when the person has emotional significance for us or is very similar to us, the understanding is brought about by another process which is emotional, unconscious, and involves no mimicry. Freud labels this other process as identification. However, some psychologists use identification as synonymous with empathy (Luchins, 1957).

According to Robert Fliess, the empathic skill of a therapist depends

. . . essentially on his ability to put himself in the latter's place, to step into his shoes, and to obtain in this way an inside knowledge that is almost first hand. The common name for such a procedure is "empathy"; and we, as a suitable name for it in our own nomenclature, should like to suggest calling it trial identification (1942, p.212).

Fiedler (1950a, 1950b, 1951) in attempting to find how trained therapists would characterize the ideal therapeutic relationship, found that the most often encountered statement included: "The therapist is able to participate completely in the patient's communication

(Fiedler, 1950a, p.239)." From this, Rogers (1958) has inferred that one of the fundamental characteristics of a good therapeutic relationship is empathy; and he would attempt to choose as therapists those people who have the ability to empathize.

The Development of Empathy

Persons have hypothesized, but very little has, as yet, been reported in the literature to demonstrate the development of empathy. Theodor Reik pointed to one of the major issues in comprehending empathy when he wrote:

It is hard to form any idea of the psychological nature of empathy, for in the controversy over the conception the process appears sometimes as the natural, unconscious condition of psychological comprehension, sometimes as the result of a special effort and conscious endeavor (1949, p.357).

Writers such as Ferenczi (1955), Adler (1927), Scheler (1954), Buber (1958) and Murphy (1947) all take for granted an innate potentiality for comprehending the feelings of others. For Ferenczi, the empathic ability is located in the unconscious where each man has a "virtual potentiality for sympathetic sensitivity" (1955, p.154). Adler, like the social philosophers Scheler and Buber, located the capacity for empathy in a basic relatedness that is part of the cosmos itself. Where Ferenczi would talk of the unconsciousness as a catch-all term, Adler would refer to the innate "social feeling" (Adler, 1927, p.61). In even more general terms, the psychologist Gardner Murphy describes empathy as a basic gift or capacity of men to love one another (Murphy, 1947).

For Scheler, the ability of one man to participate in the emotional experience of another is an innate capacity independent of experience.

The basis of our similarity is a common humanity:

Given the range of emotional qualities of which man is intrinsically capable, and from which alone his actual feelings are built up, he has an equally innate capacity for comprehending the feelings of others, even though he may never on any occasion have encountered such feelings (or their ingredients) in himself, as really unitary experiences (Scheler, 1954, p.48).

Similarly, Ruesch and Bateson (1951) observed that "empathic assessment" becomes possible between two individuals because they share the same anatomical, physical and sensory structure.

Each person must at least have some notions about himself and the other; he must, for example, think of both as alike in being alive and capable of emitting and receiving communication. Indeed, if understanding leads to hostility, it is immediately clear that there must exist common premises regarding anger and pain. The beginnings of a common codification system are latent in our biological nature, our common anatomy and common experience of bodily function and maturation (Ruesch and Bateson, 1951, pp.203-204).

The anthropologist, Redfield (1955), follows a more environmental line of thinking regarding the use of empathy in scientific research. He observes that in order to know what a Zuni Indian is ashamed of, one must first know what it means to be ashamed:

The simple fact seems to be that to study and to report the way of life of another people one must begin by assuming as common sense assumes in trying to research understanding in talking with another person, that something is the same in that way of life and one's own. One cannot listen meaningfully to another without supposing that there is something in his own way of conceiving things and of judging that is the same as one's own (Redfield, 1955, p.93).

Role-taking (or empathy) interested Mead (1934) as a skill acquired in the process of general social interaction. He saw it as a basic facet of human communication, serving mainly as a method for planning actions, making decisions, and solving problems. It was a necessary function of the emerging personality, an instrument for developing a

self and learning methods of adjusting to society (Mead, 1934, pp.254 ff.). Indeed, one may seemingly have the symbol of another language, but "if he has not any common ideas with those who speak the language, he cannot communicate with them" (ibid., pp.160-161).

Sullivan (1954) believed empathy to be a form of communication on a nonverbal level, which can be traced back to the relationship of the infant to its mother. He described the process as a direct and immediate apprehension of the feelings in the other person; and while it was most intense in the infant it did tend to decline with subsequent growth.

Following the same line of reasoning, the psychologist Ernest Schachtel (1949, 1959) draws both on biological and cultural factors to account for a decline in empathic abilities as the socialization of the child proceeds. The child first uses the "proximity senses" of taste, smell and touch, which gives him direct participation, and makes him feel intimately involved, in his environment (ibid., 1959, pp.298ff.). Slowly, the child's parents, his teachers and his whole culture discourage his use of the proximity senses, giving preference instead to the "distance senses" of seeing and hearing for the purposes of communication. The individual surrenders the use of those senses which brought him into intimate contact with others, with the result that he sees and hears people from a distance. More detached or alienated now, he feels that he is a subject and that others are objects, different from him (ibid., p.302).

David Stewart (1954, 1955, 1956), a Canadian psychologist, referred to empathy as mutual transference. He traced the development of empathy as a sequence beginning with identification, moving to transitorial imitation, then to conscious imitation, and finally to mutual trans-

ference. He describes the latter as the ability to identify without enactment. This concept of identification appears to be close to Adler's use of the term "Gemeinschaftsegefühl", or social interest (Ansbacher and Ansbacher, 1956, pp.136ff.).

In spite of all this theorizing, there has been no adequate demonstration of how or when empathy is developed; or why empathy does not appear to develop in all persons to the same degree. Research will be reported later, which indicates that specific training tends to increase empathic skills. Although Roger's suggestions, which are typical of others, may be as instructive as most. Of empathy, he states that:

. . . it might come from a study of great literature, from acting in dramatic productions, from psychology courses, or simply from the process of living (Rogers, 1951, p.437).

The Effective and Ineffective Empathizer

Almost every theoretical model of the healthy personality includes some reference to the capacity to communicate and to establish sensitive personal relationships (Katz, 1963, p.112).

Rosalind Dymond (1949) has suggested that empathy may be one of the underlying processes on which our understanding of others is built. It also seems very likely that the ability to take the role of another (empathy), is positively related to the ability to understand ourselves (insight). The latter state involves the ability to stand off and look at ourselves from another's point of view (Dymond, 1949, p.133). Thus, lack of insight into one's own self-other patterns is based on a lack of empathic ability.

In these cases the individual does not arrive at a self-other pattern which is well-rounded and which corresponds well with the actual relationship. He builds instead a meager or false

representation of the relationship and lacks insight into the fact that he has done this (Dymond, 1948, p.232).

Proficiency in empathy is often used in distinguishing between the individual who needs therapy and the individual whose mental or emotional health is adequate. Indeed, the progress of a client in psychotherapy can often be measured in terms of an increased capacity for empathy. Speaking of schizophrenia, Roy G. Hoskins says,

It throws open the possibility that the primary defect in schizophrenia, a defect from which the remainder of the symptomatology stems, is inadequate empathy (Hoskins, 1946, p.102).

Perhaps as fundamentally characteristic as anything about the psychosis is the failure of the subject either to achieve or retain adequate breadth or depth of empathy (Hoskins, 1946, p.165).

Empathy is a skill which has been described as "a process by which the infant discovers the reference points which help determine his emotional attitude toward himself" (Rioch, 1949, pp.83-84). Subsequent mental health, therefore, would be affected by the kind of feedback absorbed early in life. It may be that the poor empathizer comes from a family which is cold and unaccepting. His needs for emotional response are not met and he develops a sense of deprivation or an insatiable hunger for attention. Erich Fromm makes this point in a statement of his therapeutic philosophy: "Analytic therapy is essentially an attempt to help the patient gain or regain his capacity for love" (1950, p.87).

Gordon Allport (1961, p.285) lists among his characteristics of psychological maturity "warm relating of self to others." He describes the mature person as capable of intimacy and love, whose interpersonal relationships are characterized by empathy and compassion rather than

possessiveness and hostility. The mature person is able to give love, while the immature person wants to be loved and at best can only exchange it (Allport, 1961, pp.285ff.).

According to Katz:

Everyone living in a mobile, mass society must be able to make rapid adjustments in attitude and to maintain self-esteem in the face of many threats. The poor empathizer is simply more vulnerable than the average citizen. He is less qualified to cope with conflicts and is less defended against the anxieties of living in a society of increasing alienation (Katz, 1963, p.110).

Erikson (1950) in his conceptualization of the "Eight Stages of Man" has stressed that the establishment of a relatively stable ego and sense of self at the culmination of adolescence provides a basis for intimacy of relationship in young adulthood. In particular, he points out how the partial loss of oneself in intimacy with others is tolerable, and may be chanced, only when one is relatively sure of that self.

The sense of self, which builds from the empathic relationship between mother and child in infancy, is not fully formed in the first three, ten or sixteen years of life (Allport, 1961, p.283). It continues to expand with experience as one's circle of participation becomes larger. The primary developmental task for the adolescent involves what Erikson (1950) calls the conflict between identity and role confusion. The adolescent seeks increased clarification of identity through his peer groups and through new heterosexual relationships. Within the relative intimacy of such relationships, he is able to get some increased definition of his own identity by projecting and reflecting it upon others (ibid.). Thus, according to Stewart (1955), empathy clarifies both personal identity and otherness while fellowship cultivates and improves empathic ability.

It would seem at this point then, that the effective empathizer would tend to receive positive reinforcement for his efforts and become even more secure in himself, while the poor empathizer would tend to withdraw from the negative reinforcement he received in relationships with others. Consequently, it is possible to account for this failure by individuals who have not developed adequate empathy in taking the roles of others, by not identifying with their feelings, and not establishing empathic relationships essential for positive mental health. In this connection, sociologist Charles Cooley (1922) has provided us with a psychological explanation of the energy required to become a good empathizer:

To go out into the life of other people takes energy, as everyone may see in his own experience; and since energy is limited and requires some special stimulus to evoke it, sympathy becomes active only when our imaginations are reaching after something we admire or love, or in some way feel the need to understand and make our own (1922, p.155).

According to Buchheimer (1963), most errors in empathizing are determined by personal anxieties of the individual. Persons over or under identify because of their own needs, conflicts, or problems. Yet, all theories of empathy call for a pendulum-like action, alternating between subjective involvement and objective detachment (Cottrell and Dymond, 1949). Where the effective empathizer merges with the other and then detaches himself for the purpose of remaining objective, the more anxious empathizer is so preoccupied with himself and with his own needs that he fails to recognize that differences still remain between him and the other person, no matter how intense the feeling of similarity or identification.

Erich Fromm describes such an individual as having a narcissistic orientation, where he "experiences as real only that which exists within oneself, while phenomena in the outside world have no reality in themselves" (1956, p.118). He sees this as a failure in reality-testing, which is derived from the anxiety of the individual who enjoys no self of his own that is independent of others. An appropriate example comes from Plutarch's Life of Alexander:

King Darius had offered Alexander ten thousand talents and certain territories as ransom for prisoners of war. Parmenio, the friend of Alexander, advised his master thus: "If I were Alexander, I would accept this offer," to which Alexander replied, "So would I if, I were Parmenio" (quoted in Cohen, 1958, p.135).

Parmenio who was incapable of empathizing with Alexander, had only imposed his needs and received the appropriate rebuff for his lack of objectivity. Individuals who on occasion must give advice are susceptible to the same kind of distortion and often receive the same rejoinder.

Kroeber (1964) discriminates between coping behaviors and defense behaviors; calling one of his categories sensitivity. This he described as the ability to recognize and understand another's feelings, even when partially or subtly expressed. The coping behavior is empathy, the ability to assume another's frame of reference. It is opposed to the defense mechanism of projection, or attributing one's own denied feelings to others.

Coping behaviors are seen by Blocher (1966) as the source of human effectiveness. Each individual acquires both a set of coping behaviors and a general style of coping that he learns to use. Essentially, these coping behaviors are the interpersonal behaviors necessary

to function within close, equalitarian relationships (ibid., p.58).

Towards a Definition of Empathy

A definition has been developed from the early psychoanalytic conceptions of empathy, which began with Freud's idea that empathy involved identification, but was not the same thing as identification. Fenichel wrote:

. . . empathy consists of two acts: (a) an identification with the other person, and (b) an awareness of one's own feelings after the identification, and in this way an awareness of the objects' feelings (1945, p.511).

Cottrell and Dymond (1949) define empathy in terms of taking another's role, placing oneself in his shoes, and perceiving the situation from his perspective. Dymond's definition of empathy seems to embody most of what has been connoted by other authors, and has been widely adopted by many researchers (Parker, 1955; Hastorf and Bender, 1952). She defines empathy as "the imaginative transposing of oneself into the thinking, feeling and acting of another and so structuring the world as he does" (Dymond, 1949, p.127).

Early research on the measurement of empathy emphasized an attempt to obtain a quantitative index of such an ability. The most commonly used technique was to require the subject to predict the verbal response of another person on a rating scale or personality test (Dymond, 1948; 1949; 1950; Cottrell and Dymond, 1949; Dymond, Hughes and Raabe, 1952). Empathic ability was operationally defined in these studies on the basis of deviational scores; i.e. the best empathizer was the individual whose prediction deviated least from the self-ratings of the person for whom the prediction was made.

Speroff (1953) suggested that these studies, based on role-taking and predictive ability, may be investigating diagnostic understanding rather than empathy. However, even more serious criticisms have been launched against the concept of empathy as measured in this manner. Hastorf and Bender (1952) have suggested that successful prediction of another person's responses may be due to projection rather than empathy. Indeed, Gage and Cronbach (1955, p.420) conclude that this process of prediction is "dominated far more by what the Judge brings to it than by what he takes in during it."

There would seem to be a considerable overlapping of terms, which must be distinguished from empathy. These include sympathy, projection, and identification.

Various writers have made a distinction between empathy and sympathy (Katz, 1963). In empathy we focus our attention on the feelings and the situation of the other person. In Gardner Murphy's terms, it is "experiencing within oneself what actually belongs to the other perceived person or objects" (1947, p.496). When we sympathize, we are preoccupied with the assumed duality or the parallel between our own feelings and the feelings of others. Lois Murphy (1937), in her work on the development of sympathy in young children, emphasizes that:

. . . in the case of sympathy, probably general thresholds for being affectionate, for seeing similarities between other's situations and our own, and for empathic responsiveness underlie sympathetic habits (Murphy, 1937, p.296).

Preoccupation with our own feelings often blunts our sensitivity to others. Indeed, we tend to project our feelings on the other person. Once having received one or two cues which enable us to establish a

link between the other person and ourselves, we subsequently have no doubt about the accuracy of our estimation of his total situation.

The individual who attempts to understand the behavior of others using projection as the mechanism, assumes that "since this is how I would feel if I were in his situation, this is how he must feel" (Dymond, 1950). Predictions based on projection, therefore, are often inaccurate. Also, an individual who projects runs the risk of distorting reality by impressing onto others his own meanings.

Empathic ability, on the other hand, seems more objective, more cognitive, and more truly perceptive of the psychological structure of the other person. It seems to be a combination of sensory, imaginative, and intellectual processes (Hastorf and Bender, 1952). In addition, the empathic person can go beyond pure similarity of experience. It is possible to be aware of other's emotions and thoughts when one's own emotions and thoughts are not at all identical with them, and perhaps, are even in sharp contrast with them. You may perceive a man before you as sad, although you yourself may not be sad. You may be only too well aware of the gaiety of others when you are immersed in woe. Or, you may be aware of emotions and thoughts in others which you yourself have never experienced. Thus, while projection and sympathy as well as similarity of experience often mask as empathy, they may be clearly distinguished.

Identification appears to be a very special kind of role-taking; one that appears to be more lasting, less frequent, and more emotional than is implied in the term "empathy". Yet, Stewart (1955) sees "the ground of empathy arising in that process of identification in which an

emotional tie is formed in pursuit of a common aim, in recognition of a common want or defect" (1955, p.132). In the empathic process, the identification is transitorial, however, with the empathizer being able to move from the feelings of the other person to his own, as a constant check with reality.

Particular care is required to distinguish empathy when definitions are given in a more general or global fashion. Such is the case where Grossman (1951) refers to empathy as "perceiving correctly the world from the other person's frame of reference," and Steinmetz (1945) talks about "the ability to perceive the world as others do." This perhaps, involves projection in that one projects oneself into the thinking, feeling and acting of another. However, the difference between this type of transposition and true projection lies in the realistic nature of empathy (Norman and Ainsworth, 1954). According to Remmers (1950), empathy requires a realistic estimate of others whereas projection does not. Further justification for this reasoning has been reported by Sears (in Norman and Ainsworth, 1954) who found that persons who project lack insight. At the same time, Dymond (1948, p.234) concludes that those who are empathic have insight, for to possess insight implies a realistic view of oneself and others. This concurs with the theoretical views of D. L. Watson (1938), who, in his paper on the nature of insight says:

To have correct insight is to share the feelings of him you are observing, to attach the significance appropriate to his part in events (Watson, 1938, p.368).

Summary

While most recent frames of reference include both the cognitive and the affective components of the empathic skill, competence in

understanding the symbols and associations of others is often stressed more than the capacity to give and to receive the emotional responses which make the empathic relationship possible. Diagnostically, then, empathy is viewed as a neutral process. It may lead to positive feelings and closer social relations, but this is not necessarily the case.

"Communication of empathy" constitutes the essential variable in determining whether or not the other person realizes he is being understood (Carkhuff, 1969a, p.197). Consequently, a preferable definition of empathy, as it relates to facilitating an empathic relationship, would include the diagnostic skill of understanding as well as the communicative skill of letting the other person know he has been understood. A definition which probably comes the closest to this idea is that of Truax and Carkhuff who define empathy as "a sensitivity to the other person's current feelings, and the verbal facility to communicate this understanding in a language attuned to those feelings (1967, p.46)."

CHAPTER III

Review of the Relevant Literature

Empirical Studies

Predictive Empathy

One of the first attempts to study empathy was carried out by Gordon (1934). She made four photographs of a Mexican with one arm raised. By reversing the negatives, four more views of the image were produced. These were presented to subjects who were instructed to tell whether it was the right or left arm that was raised. She reports that one could often see the subject raise his arms or change position in an attempt to "feel with" the picture. Even though this observation was not recorded empirically, it did indicate that in some cases people try to assume the frame of reference of the object.

Under the impact of operationalism, there was a trend among early investigators, particularly among psychologists, to search for techniques which would yield readily quantifiable measures which could be subjected to statistical analysis. These measures often seem plausible and at times have a deceptive simplicity (Strupp, 1960). In an attempt to quantify empathy, researchers obtained measures of "understanding", "empathy", "assumed similarity", conflict between a person's "real and ideal self", and many others. Unfortunately, the task of differentiating precisely what was measured by these techniques has yet to be completed.

Dymond (1948, 1950, 1952) and others (Baker and Block, 1955; Bell and Hall, 1954; Bronfenbrenner, Harding and Gallway, 1958; Halpen, 1955; Helfand, 1955; Jackson and Carr, 1955; Lesser, 1959; and Lundy, 1956) have conducted a number of experiments which deal with empathy as a relatively static, unitary trait. The typical operational definition of empathy, originally proposed by Dymond (1948), was the prediction of another person's response on some kind of personality test or some kind of scale or inventory. The social-psychological concept of empathy on which this definition is based has been postulated by Buchheimer:

If man can understand, assume, or infer the role another man plays at a particular moment in time and space, if man can identify with that role, then he can predict what man will do and how man will, or can act (1963, p.61).

In an early attempt to validate her measure of empathy Dymond (1948) administered the Thematic Apperception Test and then scored the stories in terms of the ability to take the role of the character in the picture, based on the richness of the character descriptions. The more richly the character was described the higher the rating of empathy. She pointed out that persons with high empathy ratings had fewer denials of the I.A.I. interpretation. However, Parker (1955) points out that this is a poor test of empathy since the rationale (Murray, 1943) of the I.A.I. suggests that people whose denials are fewer would be projecting their own personalities into the stories rather than describing how another person feels and acts.

Further studies (Dymond, 1949; 1950) combined results of the Wechsler-Bellevue, the Rorschach, the Thematic Apperception Test, and the California Ethnocentrism Test, together with the subjects own self-analysis. Those whose empathy was judged high on these measures were

described as outgoing, optimistic, warm, emotional people, having a strong interest in life (Dymond, 1950).

Those judged low in empathy were pictured as rather rigid, introverted people, who are subject to outbursts of uncontrolled emotionality. They appeared to have difficulty dealing with concrete material and interpersonal relations. Dymond concluded:

They seem to compensate for their lack of emotional development by stressing the abstract emotional approach to life as the safest. It is unimportant to them to know what the other is thinking and feeling; it is their own thoughts and feelings that count (Dymond, 1950, p.349).

At first, there did not appear to be any differences between the two groups, of "good" and "poor" empathizers, on intelligence. A closer analysis revealed that the "poor" empathizers had significantly lower Performance scores. They appeared to function best on an abstract verbal level and seemed to be somewhat at a loss to deal with concrete situations, particularly as they relate to people.

Much of the research subsequent to Dymond's work has been notably lacking in innovation (Guiora, 1967). Essentially, most are simply replications of Dymond's model of predictive skill, with different procedures of "getting to know" the other person as the major source of variation. Among such variations are predictions of Q-sorts (Baker and Block, 1957); changes in the amount of interpersonal contact preceding measurement of predictive skill (Sternberg, 1962), after viewing a 15-minute interview session (Speal, 1960); and prediction of another's responses to an interpersonal checklist following a group discussion (Goldstein, 1961). Hatch (1961) made use of an actual field situation, measuring managers' abilities to predict the attitudes of their salesmen.

A sound film of an interview situation was used by Cline and Richards (1960). Subjects were required to predict subsequent behavior opinions, incomplete sentence responses, trait ratings and adjective checklist ratings.

It is acknowledged that research which attempts to measure how one person comes to understand another involves undeniable complexities. However, the studies based on Dymond's role theory model have attracted a disproportionate number of criticisms from a wide range of writers. It has been shown in these studies that accuracy in predicting another's responses in one situation correlates with accuracy in predicting another set of responses. But, it is certainly questionable whether this accuracy can be ascribed to an "empathic" process, or even to genuine understanding (Gage and Cronbach, 1955).

The role-theory model for the study of empathy is as follows (Dymond, 1949, p.128);

A rates A
 B rates B
 A rates B
 B rates A
 A rates B as he thinks B rates himself
 B rates A as he thinks A rates himself
 A rates A as he thinks B would rate him
 B rates B as he thinks A would rate him

While this model specifies the operation involved, it does not sufficiently differentiate empathy from other processes -- diagnosis, for example. According to Cronbach (1955), operational definitions of empathy based on this model meet only one criterion: they are specific and at times slightly restricting, but they do not differentiate empathic processes from other types of processes. Even Dymond (Cartwright, nee Dymond, 1961) was led to conclude that people might

be empathic without being able to predict and might be able to predict accurately without the process being an empathic one.

Theoretical definitions of empathy, reviewed in the first section of this chapter, emphasize an ability to share, if not communicate, a feeling that is immediate for the other person; the key points being "feeling" and "immediate" in spontaneous interaction with the other. By translating this in the superficial sense of "putting yourself in the role of the other," the operational definition inaccurately becomes that of predicting how the other would think, act, feel, or respond on any dimension the researcher might choose. Various writers (Strupp, 1960; Beach and Wertheimer, 1961; Guiora, 1967) have suggested that such an approach imposes a task on a person which is often non-functional. The person is called upon to perform an operation which in the ordinary course of events he does not perform and which in some instances may be utterly alien to him. Strupp comments:

It seems to me that an individual is not in a particularly favorable position to make assertions about the manner in which another person resolves a forced-choice item on a personality questionnaire, whose validity is usually open to question in the first place (Strupp, 1960, p.224).

Perhaps it would be more correct to say that predictive research, although inappropriate to measure empathy, is correctly designed for investigations of person perception, where the goal is broadly stated as knowledge about the other person.

Cronbach (1955; 1957) has critically analyzed predictive empathy on statistical grounds, and questions both the validity and psychological meaning of "discrepancy" scores, and correlations based on these measures. Firstly, variations in relation to differential

aspects of empathy are not dealt with, neglecting the instance where one may be able to empathize with certain behaviors but not with others. Differential use of the rating scale may be another source of error. A person may use a certain range of the rating scale, and although he has a grasp of the pattern, his predictions are wrong. Persons who characteristically use the middle portions of the rating scale will, on a simple probabilistic basis, tend to have better prediction scores than someone who uses the extremes or the whole scale equally.

Hammond, Hursch, and Todd (1964) point to a number of issues concerned with research on interpersonal perceptions, which apply equally to research based on "predictive empathy." They emphasize the environmental determinants of the other person's behavior, which must be taken into account. Additional factors include the reliability of the other, the role of the other's response invariance, the influence of similarity between the person's prediction success. Similarly, Cronbach (1955) finds it difficult to judge which part of the prediction represents a true understanding of the other as distinct from stereotype or self-reference.

In their experimental work on personality judgments, Wolf and Murray (1937) noted that subjects were most accurate in predicting about people whose average ratings were most similar to their own, and least accurate in making estimations about those whose average ratings were least similar. Their conclusions have led, over the years, to a number of false assumptions about the nature of empathy, but they did identify a major problem in the study of the empathic process:

The best explanation seems to be that man can only understand what he has already experienced. One might hazard the state-

ment that without empathy a man cannot make an accurate diagnosis and he can best empathize with those responses which most resemble his own (Wolf and Murray, 1937, p.363).

Halpen (1955) has suggested that the close relationship between similarity and predictive skill might simply mean that there is a greater likelihood that a person would recognize feelings and patterns of behavior in others if he has known similar feelings and patterns of behavior. He later agreed with most other researchers, however, who ascribe this phenomenon to projection (Buchheimer, 1963; Marwell, 1964; Bender and Hastorf, 1953; Beach and Wertheimer, 1961). Luchins (1950, 1951) pointed out, in a series of studies, that a number of factors tended to interfere with an individual's understanding of another. Some of these factors are: centering on one's own needs, emotions or purposes; focusing on only one isolated event or emotional nuance; and stereotype concerning the relationship between physical features and personality traits, including prejudices regarding an individual's race, religion or nationality.

A test of empathy which corrected for the effects of projection was devised by Bender and Hastorf (1953). Their "refined empathy" is explained in the following manner:

In essence, a refined empathy score is derived by comparing the raw empathy score (the sum of the deviations of the subject's predictions from the responses of his associate) with the projection score (the sum of the deviations of the subject's predictions from his own responses). For example, if a raw empathy deviation score was 39, and the projection deviation score was 36, the subject's predictions then deviated less from his own responses than from the responses of his own associate. By subtracting the raw empathy score from the projection score, the subject would have a refined empathy score of minus three. If, on the other hand, the raw empathy deviation was less than the projection deviation, the subject would have a positive empathy score (1953, pp.503-504).

However, this procedure remains open to all the criticisms previously leveled at the predictive model of empathy, with the exception of the lack of control over projection. In fact, additional problems are encountered since the raw empathy score may be affected at random by variabilities between each person's actual self rating; i.e. actual scores are meaningless since they vary according to the degree of true similarity between the individuals involved, as well on account of projection. Halpern (1955) concluded that this methodology failed to resolve whether the ability to predict more accurately for similar predictees was a product of attribution or true sensitivity.

Empathy Based On Role-Reversal

Speroff (1953) proposed a further model for the study of empathic behavior which he claimed was based on the idea of "role reversal." This he describes as a "cognitive restructuring of the situation so that the orientation is towards convergence of the perception" (Speroff, 1953, p.119). The model may be summarized as:

X elicits a response from Y by expressing Y's point of view. Y consents or expresses satisfaction with the point of view expressed by X. Y in turn expresses X's point of view as he sees it. X expresses consent or satisfaction with the point stated (ibid.).

Here, interactional events are seen in isolation rather than as a fluid chain of events. This static element has been criticized as not representing the true empathic process, which is based on a more fluid concept (Buchheimer, 1963). Speroff (1953), however, found that an attempt to get employees and employers to empathize by reversing their roles, was successful in labor management differences. Thus, it could

be suggested that this model may be more appropriate to training and role-playing exercises, than to the measurement of empathic ability.

The Empathy Test (Kerr and Speroff, 1955) was developed, based on the concept of role reversal. Van Zelst (1952) found that successful union leaders could be predicted by means of this test. Tobolaski and Kerr (1952) were able to predict the success of new car salesmen using this instrument, but were unable to predict the success of used car salesmen. Validation and evaluation of The Empathy Test has been reported by Van Zelst (1953) as well as Kerr and Speroff (1954). Patterson (1962), however, failed to find any evidence that the Empathy Test correlated with any other variables ascribed to measure empathy. He reports that the results of his study do not support the presence of a construct or concept of empathy as a factor in the scores of the Empathy Test.

Empathic Interaction

It would seem to this writer that if empathy is related to the capacity of a person to share the same thoughts and feelings of another, as if he were the other, and to communicate these perceptions to the other, then the nature of sharing as well as the communication, needs to be studied and specified. Consequently, the research of Charles Truax, on the effects of counsellor offered conditions of empathy, probably has greater face validity than any previous method for evaluating empathic processes. The important difference in his methodology is that actual tape-recorded interviews are rated to determine the counsellor's level of empathy in real-life interaction with the client. Reliability is achieved by employing trained raters

who base their ratings on the Accurate Empathy Scale (see Appendix A).

Validation of the Accurate Empathy Scale, apart from consideration of its face validity, depends almost entirely on research evidence relating it to outcome and to other therapy variables. Indeed, there is little evidence of what the scale really measures. Nevertheless, Truax (1963) showed that high levels of empathy were related to improvement in therapy, whereas low levels of the same condition were related to no improvement, or even deterioration in clients. He used 384 tape-recorded samples taken from the therapy sessions of eight patients; four who showed improvement and four who deteriorated.

The Core Dimensions

Research based primarily on the theorizing of Carl Rogers (1957), has lead to the development of a number of other scales designed to assess the process and outcomes of therapy. Thus, attempts have been made to operationalize these scales to assess not only empathy, but such dimensions as warmth, positive regard, and congruence or genuineness (Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, and Truax, 1967; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967). Further, dimensions of concreteness, self disclosure, immediacy and confrontation have since been added (Carkhuff, 1969a; 1969b). The original scales of empathy, positive regard and genuineness have been described as measuring the "core dimensions" of counseling and psychotherapy (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967), and as such have promoted considerable research. In general, these three therapeutic conditions have been found to be positively intercorrelated (Shapiro, 1969). However, it is regrettable that little attention has been paid to this correlation.

Strictly experimental evidence of the effectiveness of these "core" conditions is extremely sparse (Shapiro, 1969). Only in one study (Truax, Wargó and Silber, 1966) have the core conditions been applied as an experimental variable and related to outcome. Significant differences were obtained in this study between treatment and control groups of delinquent girls, on such factors as percentage of time outside the institution over a period of one year. Recently, Mullen and Abeles (1971) have reported a significant relationship between high conditions of counselor-offered empathy and successful outcome as measured by the clinical scales of the MMPI. They also found a clear relationship between low conditions of counselor-offered empathy throughout all stages of therapy and outcome categorized as unsuccessful using the same instruments. The assumption that change in an individual towards a "less pathological" state will be measured by changes in his MMPI Profile as it more closely approximates those of a "normal subject," is logically derived. However, the validity of this contention is largely untested (Shapiro, 1969).

Several studies have reported the results of a factor analysis of the intercorrelations among the core dimensions. Carkhuff (1969d) acknowledges a principle factor, which accounts for approximately 67% of the variability of all the scales. However, he contends that persons functioning at high levels on these scales are successful in differentiating between the dimensions, whereas low functioning persons are not. Further evidence, based on responses of both high and low functioning therapists, disputes this claim (Muehlberg, Pierce and Drasgow, 1969); a single factor was found to account for practically

all of the variation. This factor was described as being "friendly, likeable and helpful" (Collingwood, Hefelee, Muehlberg, and Drasgow, 1970). Thus, present evidence is probably more against, than in favor, of the functional independence of the core conditions.

An extensive review of research on the effects of the counselor-offered core conditions (summarized in Berenson and Carkhuff, 1967; Carkhuff, 1969a, 1969b; Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967; Carkhuff and Truax, 1966; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967), suggests that empathy might easily represent the single factor identified in the studies above. In most cases empathy correlates highly with the other core dimensions as well as with outcome. No other dimension, it would appear, could stand alone in such a manner. This would be consistent with the theoretical views expressed earlier in this paper that empathy is comprised of a number of facets and cannot be represented as a unitary trait. Perhaps a multi-dimensioned concept of empathy could be justified rather than viewing empathy as an independent trait among a number of core dimensions. In any case, empathy could be said to represent most of the variance among the core conditions with the remaining dimensions contributing little further information.

Zimmer and Anderson (1968) have reported that empathy is made up of ten equal factors. This would constitute tentative evidence of the above proposition, if it wasn't for a clear weakness in the methodology of their study. Careful analysis of examples given in the study reveal that the therapists' responses used for rating were at such low levels of empathy that they could not be said to represent empathy at all.

Consequently, the factors identified did not contribute to empathy, but to a lack of empathy.

Generalizations of the Effect of Counselor-Offered Core Conditions

A number of studies have reported instances where counselor-offered core conditions have direct relevance to teacher-student and parent-child relationships (Davitz, 1964; Isaacson, McKeachie, and Milholland, 1963; Pace and Stern, 1958; Thistlewaite, 1959). Lewis, Lovell, and Jesse (1965) found that sixth grade students, whose teacher offered high levels of core conditions, made greater academic gains than those whose teacher offered low levels of the same conditions. Similar studies report an average of one and a half years difference in achievement growth over one school year, as well as significant differences in truancy (Aspy and Hadlock, 1967; Aspy, 1969). Kratochvil, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) found teacher-offered core conditions significantly related to reading achievement, particularly in the first two grades. Once again, however, these studies are based on an ex post facto design. No investigation has presented the core dimensions as an experimental variable and then measured appropriate outcome criteria.

Critical Analysis in Rating Empathy

The Accurate Empathy Scale developed by Truax, and its more compact form adapted by Carkhuff (1969a; 1969b), have commonly been used to rate tape-recorded segments of actual interviews. However, Shapiro (1968) found that judges often depended on superficial, objective counselor behaviors that are more readily available to them than is information about such an abstract variable as empathy. This appeared particularly true when judges used audio-visual data. Then,

counselors visual cues were found to account for one-third of the variance in the empathy judgments. Caracena and Vicory (1969) also criticized the tape recorded segments on the basis of client's perceived empathy, which was found to be unrelated to judgments of raters. They suggested that the "sounding and looking empathic" as rated by the judges, may be unimportant to client perceptions of empathy.

Criticism by Chinsky and Rappaport (1970) relates to the methodology employed in reporting the reliability of raters. For example, five counselors may be rated on ten tape-recorded segments. Normally this would be taken to represent a sample size of 50, yet if independence of judgments is to be taken into account, actual sample size would be 5.

The use of relatively small segments of each interview could also be criticised as a source of error. Indeed, the question may be raised as to the validity of assessing the level of empathy during an interview, which may extend for an hour or more, by rating only a few minutes of the interaction. However, at least two studies (Truax and Carkhuff, 1963; Melloh, 1964) have indicated that a counselor's level of empathy when rated on short, tape-recorded segments, does not tend to vary across time. The factor analytic study of Muehlberg, Pierce and Drasgow (1969) also points to a consistency in ratings of therapist functioning, since inconsistency would tend to produce heterogeneous matrices yielding many factors instead of the single factor identified. Thus, short segments taken randomly over the course of an interview could be considered a valid sampling of the entire interview for the purposes of assessing the level of empathy, which does not appear to fluctuate appreciably throughout an interview.

Standard Communication Index

Most of the criticisms leveled at the rating of tape-recorded segments can be avoided by employing the Standard Communication Index (see Appendix B) developed by Carkhuff (1969a). This index is made up of 16 client statements taken from actual counselling interviews. Subjects completing the index write their responses to each statement, which are then scored by trained raters employing the Scale for the Measurement of Empathy in Interpersonal Processes (see Appendix A). Independence of judgments is assured by randomizing responses before rating. In addition, judgments are free of rater bias based on "sounding" or "looking" empathic.

Carkhuff (1969c) reports a high correlation (.89) between ratings obtained on the Standard Communication Index (SCI) and those from actual interviews with standard clients. Further research has established a close relation among responding to the SCI in either a verbal or written mode and responding in an actual interview situation (Greenberg, 1968). Antonuyzo and Kratochvil (1968) also found little difference in whether the SCI was presented verbally (recorded) or in written form.

Training in Empathy

Although Dymond (1948) pointed to the question of whether or not empathy could be developed, Luchins (1950; 1951) was the first to report evidence that "so-called empathic ability" is amenable to training. His early procedures aimed at eliminating certain factors which tended to interfere with a person's understanding of another individual. In the past ten years, considerable evidence has been

amassed, primarily based on the research of Truax and Carkhuff (1967), which indicates training can be used to improve the communication of empathy. However, evidence is needed to show that the increased empathic skills ensuing from this training lead to actual behavioral changes beneficial to the individual.

A 100 hour training period with graduate students and lay hospital personnel produced results which compared favorably when levels of empathy were compared with tapes of well known therapists. Similar programs have also produced increased ability to communicate empathy with mentally subnormal adolescents (Pilkey, 1967), with lay personnel (Reddy, 1968), and with parents of different races (Carkhuff and Banks, 1970). Relatively short training periods of approximately 20 hours have also been found effective (Berenson, Carkhuff and Myrus, 1966; Truax and Lister, 1971). In a study by Jordan (1969), posttraining levels of empathy achieved by subjects in a 20 hour "didactic" training program were essentially similar to levels achieved in an identical program extended over 100 hours.

An "experiential" group therapy experience was found to produce similar results to the above "didactic" program over a period of 100 hours training. However, unlike the "didactic" training, the experiential "experience" produced negligible results over a 20 hour period. Here the "didactic" program was described as "role-playing, shaping, and teaching by precept."

Training programs used by Truax (Truax and Lister, 1971) and Carkhuff (Carkhuff and Banks, 1970) have also been described as "role-playing involving successive reinforcement experiences in communication,

developed in such a manner as to shape the most effective level of empathy" (ibid., p.413). Such training appears to follow the social learning model proposed by Bandura and Walters (1963) who reported that acquisition of new behavior is often facilitated by imitation.

Social learning theory has led to demonstrations (Bandura, 1962; Bandura, Ross and Ross, 1961; 1963) which show that when a model is provided, patterns of behavior are typically acquired in large segments or in their entirety rather than through a slow, gradual process based on differential reinforcement. The assumption, then, is that a good deal of a person's behavior repertoire may be learned through imitation of what he observes in others (Bandura, 1967).

Role-playing has been found to be a particularly effective means of producing behavior change, since the role player at first dependently accepts the assigned role and then is usually independently reinforced for reproducing the behavior. Indeed, during the role-playing process, when his own previous activities become a model for his own, or another's further behavior, the person may receive reinforcement both in his capacity as a model and in his capacity as an observer and imitator (Bandura and Walters, 1963, p.90). Consequently, it is not surprising that relatively short training programs, based on role-playing and social imitation, have produced significant changes in the ability to communicate empathy.

Summary

Research following the impetus of Truax and Carkhuff has led to a particularly valid means of assessing empathy. More important, however, is the evidence indicating that skills of communicating empathy may be learned in a relatively short training program.

CHAPTER IV

Definitions, Rationale and Hypotheses

Communication of empathy is the main experimental variable of the present study. Outcomes are assessed by having subjects undertake actual interviews with both trained and student peer interviewers.

Whether differences in the ability to communicate empathy lead to noticeable differences in specified interview situations, comprises the main research question. Consideration is also given to the question of whether or not the ability to communicate empathy may be improved through the use of a specified training program.

Definitions

Empathy

Empathy, as used in this study, involves both an awareness or understanding of the thoughts and feelings of another person, as well as the verbal facility to communicate this understanding. For the purposes of this investigation, consideration is given only to the verbal mode of communicating empathy.

The process of being aware or understanding the thoughts and feelings of another is seen as being what Dymond (1949, p.127) proposed as "the imaginative transposing of oneself into the thinking, feeling and acting of another and so structuring the world as he does." This view is consistent with descriptions of empathy as "a state of mind or feeling of the other person" (Katz, 1963, p.4), "a power to feel with" (Overstreet, 1952, p.10) and others, which stress, particu-

larly, an ability to place oneself in another's shoes, and to perceive the situation from his perspective (Cottrell and Dymond, 1949).

On the other hand, understanding, which is a relatively static concept, has been postulated (Carkhuff, 1969a, pp.84-85) as essential but not sufficient for empathic communication. It is necessary, in addition, that the individual successfully communicate to the other that he is being understood.

Operationally, empathy is defined as the score obtained on the High School Communication Index (revised form of the Standard Communication Index). Responses to the ten stimulus expressions which comprise this index, are rated using the Scale for the Measurement of Empathy in Interpersonal Processes (Carkhuff, 1969a). The actual communicated empathy score (CE) is the mean rating obtained from the ten written responses.

Rationale

Earlier in this paper it was noted that a study is required which does more than simply measure the degree to which empathy exists in an individual (c.f. supra, p.31). Essentially, one must also be able to predict the effect that successful communication of empathy will have in specific human situations. With this in mind, then, the present study attempts to relate communication of empathy to success in specified interview situations.

Outcome Criteria

Early references (Mead, 1934; Dymond, 1950; Schofer, 1959) placed particular importance upon the role of empathy in the development of communication. Other theoretical models (Hoskins, 1946; Erikson, 1950;

Fromm, 1955; Allport, 1961) include specific references to the ability to understand and to have empathy with others, as prerequisite to the development of a healthy personality. Yet, after considerable expenditure of time and money involving various modes of research, most of these proposals are still untested assumptions.

Better Communicator. The term "better communicator" is derived from the forced-choice classification of pairs of subjects according to their communicative ability, as perceived by trained raters. Thus, one individual from each pair is classified as the "better communicator" of the two, after independent interviews with the rater.

Communicative ability, in the present study, refers to the extent to which an individual partakes or shares in the conversation with the rater. This view, based on the Latin derivation communcatus -- meaning to share, is consistent with that of Carl Rogers (1961, p.157), who describes true communication as "the sharing of self." According to Rogers, the continuum runs from a complete unwillingness to share self, to the self as "a rich and changing awareness of internal experiencing," which is readily shared in a receptive climate. Similarly, Mead (1934, p.327) suggests that if communication could be made theoretically perfect," the individual would affect himself as he affects others in every way." For,

the development of communication is not simply a matter of abstract ideas, but is a process of putting one's self in the place of the other person's attitude (Mead, 1934, p.327).

Someone I Could Go and Talk To. Designation as "someone I could go and talk to" is also derived from the forced-choice classification of pairs of subjects. In the study, one individual from each pair is

so designated after independent interviews with student peer raters.

The idea that communication of empathy can aid in counselling, as well as in the development of interpersonal relationships, has been well documented. Evidence has been given as to the importance of empathy across a wide range of therapeutic approaches (Fiedler, 1950b; 1951): in psychoanalytic (Fromm-Reichmann, 1950), Adlerian (Ansbacher and Ansbacher, 1956) and client-centered (Rogers, 1961; 1968) therapy. As for behaviors necessary to the formation of interpersonal relationships, these have variously been labelled coping behaviors (Kroeber, 1964; Blocher, 1966), role-taking (Mead, 1934; Cottrell and Dymond, 1949), a sense of self (Erikson, 1950) and reality-testing (Fromm, 1956). Each of these concepts has been shown to represent either a direct attempt to describe empathy or a function based on the development of empathic skills. As such, empathy may be viewed as a skill which facilitates the development of interpersonal relations, or in the words of Gordon Allport (1961, p.285) a "warm relating of self to others." Thus, it could be expected that individuals who possess empathic skills will be chosen more often as "someone I could go and talk to" than individuals lacking these skills.

Hypotheses To Be Tested

- I Subjects who receive training designed to improve the communication of empathy score higher on communicated empathy (CE) than subjects who receive regular classroom instruction during a parallel time period.

- II Subjects chosen as "someone I could go and talk to" score higher on communicated empathy (CE) than subjects not chosen.
- III Subjects chosen as a "better communicator" score higher on communicated empathy (CE) than subjects not chosen.
- IV Subjects who receive training designed to improve the communication of empathy are chosen as "someone I could go and talk to" more often than subjects who receive regular classroom instruction during a parallel time period.
- V Subjects who receive training designed to improve the communication of empathy are chosen as a "better communicator" more often than subjects who receive regular classroom instruction during a parallel time period.
- VI There is a positive relationship between being chosen as "someone I could go and talk to" and being chosen a "better communicator".

CHAPTER V

Experimental Design

Sample

Subjects for this investigation were 55 Grade 12 students enrolled in two separate classes at St. Joseph's Composite High School. This school serves over 2,000 students from all sections of the City of Edmonton, and is part of a public education system enrolling approximately 30,000 school children. Students selected for this investigation can, therefore, be considered a reasonable cross-section of high school students in the Edmonton area.

All subjects were from two Religion 35 classes, since this is a compulsory course for all grade 12 students. Assignment of students to these classes was done by computer to accommodate individual timetables. Students from one class were randomly designated as the treatment (I) group (N=28), with students from the other class making up the control (C) group (N=27).

Procedure

The experimental period for this investigation began on February 7, 1972 and continued to March 24, 1972. The treatment was comprised of fourteen lessons (see Appendix E) lasting 80 minutes each. Subjects in both the I group and the C group completed the High School Communication Index before and after the experimental period. These administrations took place on February 4, 1972 and April 10, 1972.

Students from both the I group and the C group also participated in a total of 228 individual interviews. These interviews took place

during April 11-14, 1972. A detailed description of the "paired-interview" method, which was used in this study, will be presented later in this chapter.

Treatment Group

Students in this group received instruction in skills and techniques designed to improve the communication of empathy. Emphasis was placed upon individual participation, including specific practice in communicating empathy in role playing situations. This training took place during two class periods per week and continued for seven weeks. This represents a training period of approximately 19 hours. A manual, which outlines the instructional procedures and exercises followed, has been developed by the present author and may be found in Appendix E.

Most lessons making up the experimental treatment are comprised of two parts. The first part involves a theory lesson or activity which is presented to the entire class. The second part includes a series of role-playing activities which are ideally suited to smaller groups of students. During the experimental treatment the 28 students in the class were randomly assigned to three groups for the role-playing part of each lesson. The regular classroom teacher, along with a fellow doctoral student assisted the present author by functioning as group leaders. Preliminary training sessions were held with the group leaders to familiarize them with the training manual and the role-playing exercises.

An analysis of variance of post-treatment communicated empathy scores was performed to determine whether there were significant

differences between training groups. A summary of the analysis of variance is presented in Table I. From these results it may be concluded that differences based on trainer variability were minimal.

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR DIFFERENCES IN POST-TREATMENT COMMUNICATED EMPATHY BETWEEN TRAINING GROUPS

Source	Mean Square	df	F	Probability
Between (3 Groups)	2.01	2	.28	N.S.
Within	7.19	25		

Control Group

The control group received regular classroom instruction during the experimental period. A comparison of the percentage of classes attended by both treatment and control subjects showed that no differences existed in attendance (see Appendix D).

Assessing Communicated Empathy

Standard Communication Index

Carkhuff (1969a) has reported a series of studies wherein the Standard Communication Index was employed in assessing the level of communication of a wide range of professional and lay persons. The SCI consists of 16 written client statements which represent excerpts from

live counselling sessions. Subjects completing the SCI are asked to write a response to each statement by conceiving the excerpt to be an expression of some person who has come in time of need. In formulating responses subjects are told to reply with statements which the other person could use effectively in his own life. Complete instructions are presented with the SCI (see Appendix B).

The SCI was developed by Carkhuff with the hope that it would serve as a predictive index of training effectiveness. In addition, it was proposed as a screening device for counsellor education programs. Indeed, the main rationale for the index is based on the assumption that the best index of a future criterion is a previous index of that criterion.

Treatment studies employing the SCI (Carkhuff, 1969a; Carkhuff, Friel and Kratochvil, 1970; Carkhuff, Collingwood and Renz, 1970; Carkhuff and Bierman, 1970) found that the initial level of communication obtained by the SCI was predictive of both degree of change as well as final level of functioning.

Evidence of empirical validity has been reported by Greenberg (1968), in a study where he established a close relation ($r > .85$) among:

- (a) responding in a written form to the SCI
- (b) responding verbally to the SCI
- (c) responding in an actual helping role.

Scoring the S.C.I.

Responses to the SCI are scored by trained raters using the Scale for the Measurement of Empathy in Interpersonal Processes (see Appendix

A). This scale ranges from Level 1, in which the expressions of the helper either do not attend to or detract significantly from the expressions of the other person, to Level 5, in which the helper's responses add significantly to the feeling and meaning of the other person.

Acceptable indices of test reliability and inter/intra rater reliability have been reported for the scale by Canon (1969); Carkhuff, Kratochvil and Friel (1968); Carkhuff (1969c) and Kratochvil (1969).

Cannon (1969) found rate-rerate reliability for two trained raters of .95 and .93, with an interrater reliability of .89. Carkhuff, Kratochvil, and Friel (1968) determined intra-rater, or internal consistency, reliabilities of .90, .99 and .94.

While the validity of the Standard Communication Index has been demonstrated, the degree of validity of the rating scale is largely a function of the particular rater who employs it (Carkhuff, 1968; Lehman, Ban and Donald, 1965; and Marsden, 1965). However, evidence of concurrent validity may be obtained by comparing ratings made by independent raters with ratings supplied by Carkhuff (1969a) for the SCI.

High School Communication Index (HSCI)

The High School Communication Index (see Appendix B) was used in this investigation. Ten excerpts were carefully selected from the original SCI to comprise this new form. In some cases, the original wording was changed by the present author in an attempt to make the HSCI more acceptable to high school students. The affect expressed in each excerpt was not changed in any way.

In a pilot study conducted by the present author, 20 fourth year University students completed both forms of the index. Test booklets were arranged so that the order of presentation was reversed for half the subjects. A comparison was made between the 200 independently rated responses from the HSCI and ratings of the 320 responses from the SCI. Results indicated that the HSCI correlates .90 with the SCI. Internal consistency also remained high at .97.

These results were considered evidence of the validity of the HSCI.

Training of Raters

The three raters used in the present study were all doctoral students in counselling psychology at the University of Alberta. Training included 10 hours of intensive practice in rating empathy. The training program was conducted by the present author, along with two other doctoral candidates. The trainers, who were all experienced in empathy training, did not take part in rating the actual data. Table II shows the rater intercorrelations with Carkhuff ratings at the end of the training period. Internal consistency of these ratings (KR - 20 reliability) was .99. These results establish the validity of the present raters according to the criterion set by Carkhuff (1969a).

TABLE II

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS WITH CRITERION

RATINGS PRESENTED BY CARKHUFF (N=32)

	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3	Carkhuff
Rater 1	1.00	.94	.93	.93
Rater 2		1.00	.94	.93
Rater 3			1.00	.92
Carkhuff				1.00

Scoring of Data

Following training, the raters proceeded to score the data using the Scale for the Measurement of Empathy in Interpersonal Processes. The actual written response expressions of the students were typed and number coded, so as to ensure elimination of rater bias arising from form, style, writing ability, etc. The typed responses were then presented in random order to the raters. Each response was assigned a value from 1.0 (low) to 5.0 (high). Half units (1.5, 2.5, etc.) were employed to increase the measuring precision of the scale. Ten individual scores were obtained for each subject on the High School Communication Index. The communicated empathy (CE) score was obtained by calculating the mean score for each subject.

An overlap-alternating procedure (Westwood, 1972) was employed in rating responses. Using this method, each of the 1,100 response expressions was independently rated by two of the three raters. In addition, during the rating of the responses three sets of anonymous samples were included (near the beginning, middle, and end) with the actual data for all three raters, in an attempt to determine interrater reliability. Estimates of intra- and interrater reliability obtained from this procedure may be found in Table III.

To arrive at the mean "r" value across total pair ratings, the coefficient for each rater pair was converted to Z_r scores. Then the mean of the like pairs was determined in terms of the Z_r mean. This mean value was then converted from an X_{Z_r} to arrive at the "r" shown above (Fergusson, 1959, p.412).

TABLE III
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN
RATERS ON ANONYMOUS SAMPLES (N=90)

	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	1.00	.89	.89
Rater 2		1.00	.86
Rater 3			1.00

Average $r = .88$

KR-20 Reliability = .96

Methods Used to Measure Outcomes

Outcomes were tested on the basis of choices made by two different groups of interviewers: a trained interviewer group (TI) and a student peer group (SP). The trained interviewer (TI) group was used in testing Hypotheses III and IV, which are concerned with rating the "better communicator." Hypotheses II and IV, which involve choosing "someone I could go and talk to" employed choices made by the student peer (SP) group.

Trained Interviewer (TI) Group

Trained interviewers were chosen from graduate students, with a major in counselling psychology, enrolled in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta. A brief training session was held with these raters, aimed at standardizing the differentiations made according to the criterion, "better communicator."

Student Peer (SP) Interviewer Group

Student peer (SP) interviewers were selected randomly from the same school as experimental subjects. Selections were checked to ensure that SP interviewers did not know the experimental subjects they interviewed.

Paired-Interview Method - Better Communicator

Each II interviewed, consecutively, one subject drawn randomly from the I group and one subject similarly drawn from the C group. Interview order, either first or second, was also randomized for subjects from these two groups. After interviewing each of the subjects approximately 20 minutes, the II chose one as the "better communicator." To control for the effects of sex upon the II choices, sub-groups of boys and girls were identified within the I and C groups. Random selection, with replacement, was made from these sub-groups so that each pair was made up of either two boys or two girls. Selection continued until 57 pairs had been interviewed.

Paired-Interview Method - Someone I Could Go and Talk To

Classification as "someone I could go and talk to" was made from the forced-choice selection of student peers (SP).

Student peer (SP) interviewers were randomly selected from the same school, but did not know the experimental subjects they interviewed. After subjects had been interviewed by a II, as previously described, they were interviewed, consecutively, by a SP interviewer. Each of these interviews lasted approximately 20 minutes, after which the SP chose one of the subjects as "someone I could go and talk to."

Statistical Treatments

The methods followed in testing the hypotheses are described in this section. Data analysis was completed using an IBM 360/67 computer at the University of Alberta.

Tests of Significance

Communicated Empathy (Hypothesis I)

A nonequivalent control group design (Campbell and Stanley, 1966, p.47) was employed to study main effects of the treatment on communicated empathy (CE). This design can be shown graphically as in Figure 1.

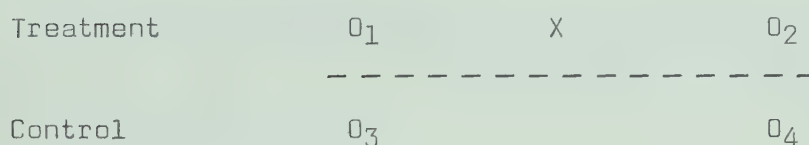


Figure 1

The statistical test of significance used to detect differences between post-test CE scores (O_2 and O_4) was an analysis of covariance, with pre-test scores (O_1 and O_3) as the covariate.

Outcomes

a. Hypotheses II and III. Comparison of mean CE scores, between subjects classified as "better communicators" and those not so classified, was made using t tests. Similar comparisons were made between subjects classified as "someone I could go and talk to" and those not so classified.

b. Hypotheses IV and V. The forced-choice classification of subjects as "better communicators" was recorded in the following manner:

Number of Subjects Classified as "Better Communicator"

	Observed	Expected
Treatment Group		28.5
Control Group		28.5

Similarly, the forced-choice designation of subjects as "someone I could go and talk to" was also recorded:

Number of Subjects Classified as

"Someone I Could Go and Talk To"

	Observed	Expected
Treatment Group		28.5
Control Group		28.5

The statistical test, Chi Square (χ^2), was used to determine the significance of differences between observed and expected frequencies, in the above tables.

c. Hypothesis VI. The following frequency table was used to determine the relation between classification as a "better communicator" and classification as "someone I could go and talk to," for subjects from the I group only:

Number of Subjects	
	TT+ TT-
BC+	
BC-	

where, BC+ represents subjects classified as "better communicator."

BC- represents subjects not classified as "better communicator."

TT+ represents subjects classified as "someone I could go and talk to."

TT- represents subjects not classified as "someone I could go and talk to."

Again, chi square (χ^2) was used to determine the significance of differences between observed frequencies.

CHAPTER VI

Results

The first section of this chapter deals with the analysis of the data. Generalizations and implications stemming from the findings will be discussed in the final section.

Treatment Effects

The ratings received on each of the ten responses of the High School Communication Index were summed for each subject and then divided by 10 to obtain a mean communicated empathy (CE) score. The means and standard deviations for the treatment and control groups are presented in Table IV. A graphical representation of the treatment effects may be found in Figure 2.

TABLE IV

COMMUNICATED EMPATHY MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
FOR TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

Group	Treatment		Control	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Mean	1.32	1.57	1.46	1.42
S.D.	.14	.28	.20	.18

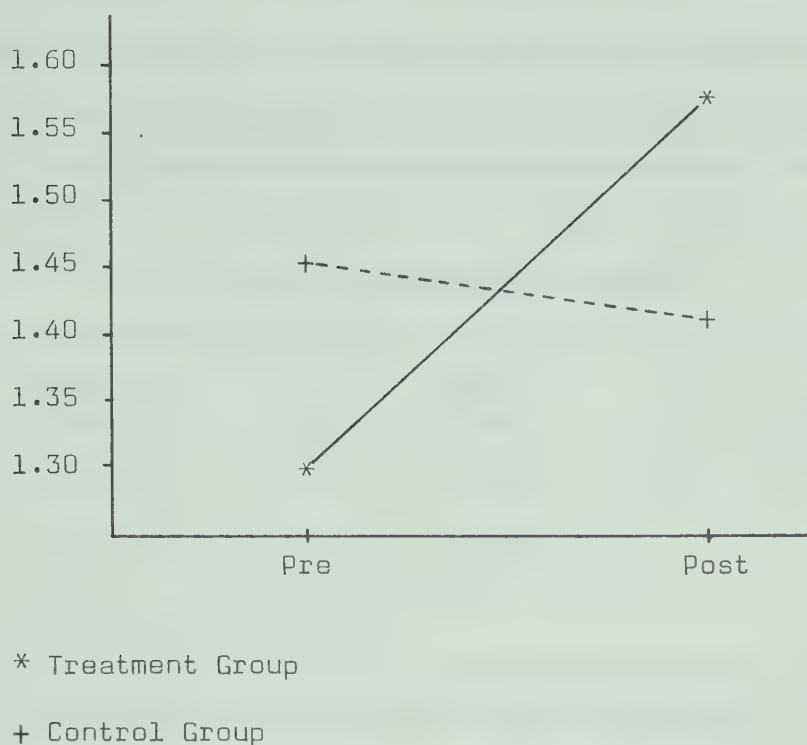


Figure 2

COMPARISON OF COMMUNICATED EMPATHY MEAN SCORES FOR TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

An analysis of covariance of the differences between groups was then performed to determine whether the observed differences were significant. A summary of the analysis of covariance is presented in Table V.

It may be seen from Table V-A that the control group's CE mean score before treatment was higher than that of the treatment group. This difference was found to be significant ($p < .005$). Conversely, after treatment the CE mean score for the treatment group exceeded that of the control group. This difference was also found to be significant

TABLE V

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
PRE- AND POST-TREATMENT COMMUNICATED EMPATHY SCORES

A. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
PRE-TREATMENT COMMUNICATED EMPATHY

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between	24.85	1	24.85	8.56	.005
Within	139.38	48	2.90		
Total	164.23	49			

B. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
POST-TREATMENT COMMUNICATED EMPATHY

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between	29.69	1	29.69	5.32	.03
Within	267.66	48	5.58		
Total	297.35	49			

C. ADJUSTED ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON POST-TREATMENT
COMMUNICATED EMPATHY WITH PRE-TREATMENT
COMMUNICATED EMPATHY AS THE COVARIATE

Source	df	Mean Square	F	Probability
Between	1	32.28	5.73	.02
Within	47	5.63		

($p < .03$). The analysis of covariance procedure was selected for further analysis, since it allows an ex post facto control for pre-treatment differences between groups. The resulting adjusted analysis of variance indicated that post-treatment differences in CE between the treatment and control groups were significant ($p < .02$).

These findings are in support of Hypothesis I that students receiving treatment will score higher on communicated empathy than control students. It can be concluded from this evidence that the treatment subjects increased their ability to communicate empathy.

Independent Measures of Outcome

Differences in Communicated Empathy

Following interviews with student peer interviewers, subjects were grouped in accordance with whether or not they were chosen as "someone I could go and talk to". There were 57 subject pairs interviewed in all, resulting in 57 subjects being classified as "chosen" and 57 as "not chosen".

Similar groupings were made according to the choices of trained interviewers, who identified the "better communicator" in each subject pair. Again, 57 subjects were classified as "chosen" and 57 as "not chosen".

A comparison was made between the "chosen" and "not chosen" groups for differences in post-treatment CE scores. Results of t tests for differences between means are presented in Table VI-A and VI-B. It may be seen that in each case, students in the "chosen" groups scored significantly higher on CE than students in the "not chosen" groups. Since these differences were predicted in Hypotheses II and III, one-tail tests were used in determining the significance of the findings.

TABLE VI

t TESTS FOR DIFFERENCES IN POST-TREATMENT COMMUNICATED EMPATHY
BETWEEN STUDENTS CHOSEN OR NOT-CHOSEN BY INTERVIEWERS

A. STUDENT PEER INTERVIEWERS (SOMEONE I COULD
GO AND TALK TO)

	Classification	
	Chosen	Not-Chosen
Number	57	57
Mean	1.60	1.46
SD	.27	.20
df	112(102.9) ^a	
t	3.12	
Probability	.001*	

B. EXPERT INTERVIEWERS (BETTER COMMUNICATOR)

	Classification	
	Chosen	Not-Chosen
Number	57	57
Mean	1.58	1.48
SD	.24	.24
df	112	
t	2.09	
Probability	.019*	

^a Adjusted using Welch t Prime Approximation

* One-tail test

It should be noted that in Table VI-A the degrees of freedom were adjusted using the Welch t Prime Approximation. This procedure became necessary when it was discovered that the assumption of homogeneity of variance, underlying the use of the t test, could not be met. In this case, the difference in the variances of the "chosen" and "not chosen" groups was significant ($p < .02$).

Subjects Chosen in Interviews

The numbers of subjects chosen from the treatment and control groups by both the student pair interviewers and the trained interviewers were recorded. The observed frequencies were then compared with expected frequencies using Chi Square, to test for the significance of differences between treatment and control groups. These findings are presented in Tables VII-A and VII-B.

From Table VII-A it can be seen that significantly more ($p < .05$) treatment subjects than control subjects were chosen as "someone I could go and talk to". Similarly, significantly more ($p < .01$) treatment subjects were chosen as "better communicators". These findings are in support of Hypotheses IV and V.

In order to determine the relationship between classifications "someone I could go and talk to" and "better communicator" a 2 x 2 contingency table was drawn up. The similarity of choices made by student peer interviewers and trained interviewers were compared for each of the 57 subject pairs interviewed in the study. The degree of relationship between "someone I could go and talk to" and "better communicator" was determined by use of Chi Square. Results of this application are presented in Table VII-C. It can be seen that Hypothesis

TABLE VII

APPLICATION OF CHI SQUARE IN COMPARING FREQUENCIES OF
TREATMENT AND CONTROL SUBJECTS CHOSEN BY INTERVIEWERS

A. SUBJECTS CLASSIFIED AS "SOMEONE I COULD GO AND TALK TO" BY STUDENT PEER INTERVIEWERS				
Group	O	E	O - E	$\frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$
Treatment	36	28.5	7.5	1.97
Control	21	28.5	7.5	1.97
				$\chi^2 = 3.94$
				Probability < .05
B. SUBJECTS CLASSIFIED AS "BETTER COMMUNICATOR" BY TRAINED INTERVIEWERS				
Group	O	E	O - E	$\frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$
Treatment	39	28.5	10.5	3.87
Control	18	28.5	10.5	3.87
				$\chi^2 = 7.74$
				Probability < .01
C. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CLASSIFICATIONS "SOMEONE I COULD GO AND TALK TO" AND "BETTER COMMUNICATOR"				
		Someone I Could Go and Talk To		
		Chosen	Not-Chosen	
Better Communicator	Chosen	30	9	
	Not-Chosen	6	12	
				$\chi^2 = 10.01$
				Probability < .002

VI has been clearly upheld, in that the degree of relationship found was significant ($p < .002$).

Summary

A summary of the results of this investigation are presented in Table VIII.

Discussion

This study showed that high school students who received training in skills designed to increase their ability to communicate empathy were perceived differently than students who did not receive such training. Following short interviews, treatment students were chosen more often by their peers as "someone I could go and talk to". Trained interviewers also chose treatment students more often as "better communicators". These findings are considered to support the basic hypothesis of this study that persons who receive training in communicating empathy will be more successful in specific interpersonal relationships than persons who do not receive such training.

Limitations of This Investigation

Caution should be exercised in interpreting the findings of this study in view of its limitations.

The sample of students was drawn from two classes within a single high school in Edmonton, Alberta. Even though every effort was made to obtain as representative a sample as possible, this limitation undoubtedly increased the possibility of bias. Unfortunately, these circumstances had to be accepted in a compromise between the length of

TABLE VIII

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Hypothesis	Statement of Hypothesis	Finding	Probability
I	Treatment subjects will score <u>higher</u> on communicated empathy than control subjects.	Supported	.02
II	Subjects chosen as "someone I could go and talk to" will score <u>higher</u> on communicated empathy than subjects not chosen.	Supported	.001
III	Subjects chosen as "better communicator" will score <u>higher</u> on communicated empathy than subjects not chosen.	Supported	.019
IV	Treatment subjects will be chosen as "someone I could go and talk to" <u>more often</u> than control subjects.	Supported	.05
V	Treatment subjects will be chosen as "better communicator" <u>more often</u> than control subjects.	Supported	.01
VI	There is a <u>significant</u> positive relationship between being chosen as "someone I could go and talk to" and being chosen a "better communicator".	Supported	.002

treatment and the representativeness of the sample. It was felt that any substantial decrease in the length of treatment would render the entire study worthless.

Indeed, another limitation of the study may have been the short period of time available. It is conceded that one would not expect dramatic behavioral changes to occur over fourteen 80 minute sessions. However, while the actual training time was less than nineteen hours, outside of class the students continued to practice and use the skills they had learned. Many students reported experiences in attempting to use the skills they had learned in communicating with classmates, teachers and members of their families. Thus, the length of treatment is viewed as only a minor limitation.

It would have been desirable from a research point of view to have been able to eliminate the contaminating effects of teacher bias. Indeed, the same teacher who was involved in training sessions with the treatment group also taught the control group. It could be expected that the personal empathic skills of the teacher most certainly affected learning in both the treatment and control groups. However, it should be noted that any error associated with the control group learning some of the skills taught to the treatment group, is in the direction of rejecting the stated hypothesis.

A further explanation of the contaminating effects of the assorted trainers, in terms of experimental effect, is also in order at this time. It is true that two highly motivated doctoral candidates, along with the regular classroom teacher, took part in training sessions with the treatment group. Whereas, in the control group, only the classroom

teacher was involved with the class. Certainly, such procedures greatly enhance the likelihood of increased learning on the part of treatment subjects. Nevertheless, it was not the purpose of this investigation to demonstrate the superiority of the treatment program over some other method. Importance was placed upon whether or not the program helped students to improve their ability to communicate empathy and, if so, whether such students could be identified by independent trained and peer interviewers. Thus, while this investigation showed that the program could be successful in significantly raising the level of communicated empathy in the trained group, no claims are made as to the relative effectiveness of the program in comparison with other methods.

A final limitation of this study is associated with the methods used to assess behavior change. The validity and reliability of the findings depend upon the extent to which the response ratings of the High School Communication Index are valid and reliable. Thus, every effort was made to reduce rater and experimenter bias in collecting and analyzing the data of this study. The raters, after demonstrating expertise in rating responses according to the Scale for the Measurement of Empathy in Interpersonal Processes, used a "blind analysis" procedure in rating the number coded responses. In addition, the data was recorded and prepared for computer analysis by independent researchers who had no knowledge of the hypotheses to be tested.

Conclusions

Three major conclusions can be drawn from the results of this investigation:

Students Can Be Taught to Communicate Empathy

Students who received training designed to improve the communication of empathy scored significantly higher on communicated empathy than students who received regular classroom instruction during a parallel time period. These results were obtained in spite of the fact that the control group scored significantly higher on communicated empathy than the treatment group, at the beginning of the experimental period. Even though a true evaluation of treatment effects necessitated a comparison with control subjects, the reader can obtain a general picture of the impact of training by reviewing the gains presented in Figure 2.

Students Who Are Chosen Score Higher on Communicated Empathy

Students who were chosen as "someone I could go and talk to" scored significantly higher on communicated empathy than students not chosen. Similar results were found for students who were chosen "better communicators". Particular attention should be given to the fact that both the trained and the student peer interviewers identified students who communicated higher levels of empathy.

Previously in this paper (c.f. supra, pp.33-34), it was reported that trained judges often depended on superficial, objective behaviors that are more readily available than information about such an abstract variable as empathy (Shapiro, 1968). Caracena and Vicory (1969) also suggested that "sounding and looking" empathic, as rated by trained judges, may be unimportant to client perceptions of empathy. However, the present findings do not support these suppositions. Whether or not the trained interviewers were deceived by students who sounded and

looked empathic is of little concern here, since the student peer interviewers made essentially the same choices. Indeed, it may be concluded that the ability to communicate empathy influenced choices, whether or not the interviewers knew they were looking for empathy.

Students Who Have Received Training in Communicating Empathy Can Be Identified By Independent Interviewers

Students who received training designed to improve the communication of empathy were chosen as "someone I could go and talk to" more often than students who did not receive such training. Similarly, trained students were also chosen "better communicator" more often than control students. The conclusion, then, is that the skills of communicating empathy, learned by the treatment students, are identified by both trained and student peer interviewers as something which is desirable in continuing a relationship with another person.

Earlier (c.f. supra, p.36), evidence was presented which indicated that training could be used to improve the communication of empathy. However, in the studies cited it was the posttraining level of empathy which formed the main criterion of success. Only in the present study has it been shown that increased empathic skills ensuing from training can lead to actual behavioral changes beneficial to the individual.

Implications

The main implication of this study is that high school students can be taught skills in communicating empathy which can be of direct benefit to them in their everyday lives. One may argue that the skills involved represent nothing more than a collection of superficial techniques. Nevertheless, in this investigation students who possessed

more skills in communicating empathy were more likely to be chosen as "someone I could go and talk to". To critics this may seem a minor consideration, however, it represented a major achievement in the lives of those students who found success in relating to other students.

Early conceptualization of this investigation was plagued by doubts concerning the feasibility of conducting the 228 independent interviews required as measures of outcome. Careful observation of the verbal interaction between students, both in class and in the cafeteria, indicated that very little would be accomplished in the individual interviews. This evidence seemed particularly crucial since in the experiment the students would not even know each other. Surely, even if the two students actually talked to each other, it was clear that the content of their conversations would go no deeper than a review of the weather, or the most recent football game.

Results of a pilot study involving 24 individual interviews completely dispelled these doubts, and at the same time led to a new awareness of the effectiveness of the "paired-interview" as a learning mode. Indeed, in a discussion following the interviews, each of the 12 students involved expressed disbelief in how much they had actually learned about themselves, as well as the other person. Later, similar comments were made by students taking part in the experimental interviews. Then, all 228 interviews lasted the entire 20 minutes suggested. In most cases a research assistant had to actually stop the interview to keep within the time schedule.

Certainly the educational implications of this finding are worthy of further investigation. However, a few of the comments made by the students may help in clarifying the apparent success of the interviews:

"I couldn't talk to him like that in the cafeteria -- I would be afraid he would think I had cracked up."

"You can't just go up and talk to a stranger in school because he would think you were after something."

"I liked these interviews because both of us knew we were expected to talk to each other. In school, you never know whether a 'chick' wants to talk to you or not."

"I never knew I could talk to someone like that. It scares me to think that I just about went through school without finding out."

"When I think about how lonely I've been, and how much I could have done for other kids like me, I just want to cry."

Further implications of this study point to the involvement of the school guidance counsellor in two new roles. Firstly, many of the concepts and skills presented in the training program used in this study are based upon concepts and skills stressed in counsellor education. Thus, counsellors who have received specific training in counselling could present the program to groups of students with little difficulty. Further, counsellors may function as consultants to teachers using the program in their classrooms. The basic outline of the program could even be expanded to form the basis of a course in developmental guidance. One possibility would be to have teachers working in teams, with the guidance counsellor as a consultant. Whatever the method, it should be stressed that training in skills of communicating empathy is for all students, not just a select few.

While this study showed that many students benefited from the training program, some students became particularly effective in

relating to others on a very personal level. These are the students who were consistently chosen as "someone I could go and talk to". About 25 percent of the treatment students could be classified as being chosen consistently, whereas only seven percent of the control students could be so classified. Thus, with training, it would be possible to select a number of students who could become "peer counsellors".

In view of the revolutionary nature of this last statement, a brief review of research into the effectiveness of non-professionals in the helping professions is in order. The effectiveness of such interpersonal skills as empathy in positive therapeutic outcome has been reported by Truax (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967), Whitehorn and Betz (1965) and Berenson (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967). Other studies (Bergin and Solomon, 1963; Melloch, 1964) demonstrated that lay persons were able to communicate levels of empathy which were not significantly different from those of counselling practicum trainee's, or of professional experienced counsellors. Particular importance should be given to the Bergin and Solomon and the Melloch studies, both of which found no significant relationship between levels of empathy and graduate school grades, or even practicum grades.

Further studies (Truax et al., 1966b; Berenson, Carkhuff and Myrus, 1966) have reported lay counsellor effectiveness in terms of outcome, although these studies are limited in both number and design. Nevertheless, Truax, Wargo and Silber (1966b) also showed that lay hospital aides produced positive outcome changes in the behavior of hospitalized mental patients. Similarly, Rioch (1963) reported on the effectiveness of "mature housewives" who were trained to work with

schizophrenic patients. In summary, then, there is some evidence that peer counsellors could be effective in counselling other students. Certainly there is enough evidence to warrant further investigation.

This leads to the second implication for change in the role of the school guidance counsellor. For, it is he who would be called upon to supervise the counselling sessions of the peer counsellors. Indeed, it is possible to envisage peer counsellors undertaking a variety of day to day counselling interviews at the school counselling center. At this point, however, the inference is for further investigation. Yet the impetus for change is exciting.

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APPENDIX A

- Appendix A-1 A Scale for the Measurement of Accurate Empathy -
C. B. Truax
- Appendix A-2 A Schematic Presentation of a Scale for the
Measurement of Accurate Empathy
- Appendix A-3 A Scale for the Measurement of Empathy in Inter-
personal Processes - R. R. Carkhuff
- Appendix A-4 Comparison of Truax and Carkhuff Scales

APPENDIX A-1

A SCALE FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF ACCURATE EMPATHY

Stage 1

Therapist seems completely unaware of even the most conspicuous of the client's feelings; his responses are not appropriate to the mood and content of the client's statements. There is no determinable quality of empathy, and hence no accuracy whatsoever. The therapist may be bored and disinterested or actively offering advice, but he is not communicating an awareness of the client's current feelings.

Stage 2

Therapist shows an almost negligible degree of accuracy in his responses, and that only toward the client's most obvious feelings. Any emotions which are not clearly defined he tends to ignore altogether. He may be correctly sensitive to obvious feelings and yet misunderstand much of what the client is really trying to say. By his response he may block off or may misdirect the patient. Stage 2 is distinguishable from Stage 3 in that the therapist ignores feelings rather than displaying an inability to understand them.

Stage 3

Therapist often responds accurately to client's more exposed feelings. He also displays concern for the deeper, more hidden feelings, which he seems to sense must be present, though he does not understand their nature or sense their meaning to the patient.

Stage 4

Therapist usually responds accurately to the client's more obvious feelings and occasionally recognizes some that are less apparent. In the process of this tentative probing, however, he may misinterpret some present feelings and anticipate some which are not current. Sensitivity and awareness do exist in the therapist, but he is not entirely "with" the patient in the current situation or experience. The desire and effort to understand are both present, but his accuracy is low. This stage is distinguishable from Stage 3 in that the therapist does occasionally recognize less apparent feelings. He also may seem to have a theory about the patient and may even know how or why the patient feels a particular way, but he is definitely not "with" the patient. In short, the therapist may be diagnostically accurate, but not emphatically accurate in his sensitivity to the patient's current feelings.

Stage 5

Therapist accurately responds to all of the client's more readily discernible feelings. He also shows awareness of many less evident feelings and experiences, but he tends to be somewhat inaccurate in his understanding of these. However, when he does not understand completely, this lack of complete understanding is communicated without an anticipatory or jarring note. His misunderstandings are not disruptive by their tentative nature. Sometimes in Stage 5 the therapist simply communicates his awareness of the problem of understanding another person's inner world. This stage is the midpoint of the continuum of accurate empathy.

Stage 6

Therapist recognizes most of the client's present feelings, including those which are not readily apparent. Although he understands their content, he sometimes tends to misjudge the intensity of these veiled feelings, so that his responses are not always accurately suited to the exact mood of the client. The therapist does deal directly with feelings the patient is currently experiencing although he may misjudge the intensity of those less apparent. Although sensing the feelings, he often is unable to communicate meaning to them. In contrast to Stage 7, the therapist's statements contain an almost static quality in the sense that he handles those feelings that the patient offers but does not bring new elements to life. He is "with" the client but doesn't encourage exploration. His manner of communicating his understanding is such that he makes of it a finished thing.

Stage 7

Therapist responds accurately to most of the client's present feelings and shows awareness of the precise intensity of most of the underlying emotions. However, his responses move only slightly beyond the client's own awareness, so that feelings may be present which neither the client nor therapist recognizes. The therapist initiates moves toward more emotionally laden material, and may communicate simply that he and the patient are moving towards more emotionally significant material. Stage 7 is distinguishable from Stage 6 in that often the therapist's response is a kind of precise pointing of the finger toward emotionally significant material.

Stage 8

Therapist accurately interprets all the client's present, acknowledged feelings. He also uncovers the most deeply shrouded of the client's feelings, voicing meanings in the client's experience of which the client is scarcely aware. Since the therapist must necessarily utilize a method of trial and error in the new uncharted areas, there are minor flaws in the accuracy of his understanding, but these inaccuracies are held tentatively. With sensitivity and accuracy he moves into feelings and experiences that the client has only hinted at.

The therapist offers specific explanations or additions to the patient's understanding so that underlying emotions are both pointed out and specifically talked about. The content that comes to life may be new but it is not alien.

Although the therapist in Stage 8 makes mistakes, these mistakes are not jarring, because they are covered by the tentative character of the response. Also, this therapist is sensitive to his mistakes and quickly changes his response in midstream, indicating that he has recognized what is being talked about and what the patient is seeking in his own explorations. The therapist reflects a togetherness with the patient in tentative trial and error exploration. His voice tone reflects the seriousness and depth of his empathic grasp.

Stage 9

The therapist in this stage unerringly responds to the client's full range of feelings in their exact intensity. Without hesitation, he recognizes each emotional nuance and communicates an understanding of every deepest feeling. He is completely attuned to the client's shifting emotional content; he senses each of the client's feelings and reflects them in his words and voice. With sensitive accuracy, he expands the client's hints into a full-scale (though tentative) elaboration of feeling or experience. He shows precision both in understanding and in communication of this understanding, and expresses and experiences them without hesitancy.

APPENDIX A-2

**A Schematic Presentation of
A Scale for the Measurement of Accurate Empathy^a**

LEVEL OF CLIENT FEELINGS PERCEIVED AND REFLECTED BY THE THERAPIST		DEGREES OF THERAPIST ACCURACY IN THE PERCEPTION OF CLIENT FEELINGS AT THE STAGES OF THE ACCURATE EMPATHY SCALE								
		Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5	Stage 6	Stage 7	Stage 8	Stage 9
Present obvious feelings	ignores	ignores	understands poorly	often accurate	usually accurate	accurate	accurate	accurate	accurate	unhesitating flawless accuracy
	Veiled feelings		ignores	senses but under- stands poorly	accuracy very low but trying	sensitive but somewhat inaccurate tentative interpre- tation	accurate toward content but not intensity	accurate	accurate	
Preconscious feelings							ignores	a precise "pointing toward"	sensitive trial-and- error exploration	

^a. This schematic presentation of levels of accurate empathy, developed by Richard A. Melloh, University of Florida, has been found useful for both research raters and therapist trainees. It provides a brief summary of the table scale, and is intended to facilitate the training of raters in the use of the scale.

APPENDIX A-3

EMPATHIC UNDERSTANDING IN INTERPERSONAL PROCESSES:

A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT

Level 1

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the first person either do not attend to or detract significantly from the verbal and behavioral expressions of the second person(s) in that they communicate significantly less of the second person's feelings than the second person had communicated himself.

EXAMPLES: The first person communicates no awareness of even the most obvious, expressed surface feelings of the second person. The first person may be bored or uninterested or simply operating from a preconceived frame of reference which totally excludes that of the other person(s).

In summary, the first person does everything but express that he is listening, understanding, or being sensitive to even the feelings of the other person in such a way as to detract significantly from the communications of the second person.

Level 2

While the first person responds to the expressed feelings of the second person(s), he does so in such a way that he subtracts noticeable affect from the communications of the second person.

EXAMPLES: The first person may communicate some awareness of obvious surface feelings of the second person, but his communications drain off a level of the affect and distort the level of meaning. The first person may communicate his own ideas of what may be going on, but these are not congruent with the expressions of the second person.

In summary, the first person tends to respond to other than what the second person is expressing or indicating.

Level 3

The expressions of the first person in response to the expressed feelings of the second person(s) are essentially interchangeable with those of the second person in that they express essentially the same affect and meaning.

EXAMPLE: The first person responds with accurate understanding of the surface feelings of the second person but may not respond to or may misinterpret the deeper feelings.

In summary, the first person is responding so as to neither subtract from nor add to the expressions of the second person; but he does not respond accurately to how that person really feels beneath the surface feelings. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative interpersonal functioning.

Level 4

The responses of the first person add noticeably to the expressions of the second person(s) in such a way as to express feelings a level deeper than the second person was able to express himself.

EXAMPLE: The facilitator communicates his understanding of the expressions of the second person at a level deeper than they were expressed, and thus enables the second person to experience and/or express feelings he was unable to express previously.

In summary, the facilitator's responses add deeper feeling and meaning to the expressions of the second person.

Level 5

The first person's responses add significantly to the feeling and meaning of the expressions of the second person(s) in such a way as to (1) accurately express feelings levels below what the person himself was able to express or (2) in the event of on going deep self-exploration on the second person's part, to be fully with him in his deepest moments.

EXAMPLES: The facilitator responds with accuracy to all of the person's deeper as well as surface feelings. He is "together" with the second person or "tuned in" on his wave length. The facilitator and the other person might proceed together to explore previously unexplored areas of human existence.

In summary, the facilitator is responding with a full awareness of who the other person is and a comprehensive and accurate empathic understanding of his deepest feelings.

APPENDIX A-4

COMPARISON OF TRUAX AND CARKHUFF EMPATHY SCALES

Truax Scale	Obvious Feelings	Carkhuff Scale
Stage 1	ignores	Level 1.0
Stage 2	understands poorly	Level 1.5
Stage 3	often accurate	Level 2.0
Stage 4	usually accurate	Level 2.5
Stage 5	accurate	Level 3.0
Stage 6	accurate	Level 3.5
Stage 7	accurate	Level 4.0
Stage 8	accurate	Level 4.5
Stage 9	unhesitating flawless accuracy	Level 5.0

APPENDIX B

Appendix B-1 Standard Communication Index

Appendix B-2 High School Communication Index

APPENDIX B-1

Carkhuff Communication of Helper Responses
to Helpee Stimulus Expressions

DIRECTIONS

The following excerpts represent 16 stimulus expressions; that is expressions of feeling and content made by a person seeking help.

You may conceive of this person not necessarily as a formal client but simply as a person who has come to you in time of need.

We would like you to respond as you would if someone came to you seeking assistance in a time of distress. Write down your response after the number 1. In formulating your responses keep in mind those that the helpee can use effectively in his own life.

In summary, formulate responses to the person who has come to you for help. The following range of helpee expressions can easily come in the first contact or first few contacts; however, do not attempt to relate any one expression to a previous expression. Simply try to formulate a meaningful response to the person's immediate expression.

Name _____

Date _____

COMMUNICATION ASSESSMENTS

Excerpt 1

HELPEE: Gee, I'm so disappointed. I thought we could get along together and you could help me. We don't seem to be getting anywhere. You don't understand me. You don't know I'm here. I don't even think you care for me. You don't hear me when I talk. You seem to be somewhere else. Your responses are independent of anything I have to say. I don't know where to turn. I'm just so -- doggone it -- I don't know what I'm going to do, but I know you can't help me. There just is no hope.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 2

HELPEE: Who do you think you are? You call yourself a therapist! Damn, here I am spilling my guts out and all you do is look at the clock. You don't hear what I say. Your responses are not attuned to what I'm saying. I never heard of such therapy. You are supposed to be helping me. You are so wrapped up in your world you don't hear a thing I'm saying. You don't give me the time. The minute the hour is up you push me out the door whether I have something important to say or not. I--ah-- it makes me so God damn mad!

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 3

HELPEE: They wave that degree up like it's a pot of gold at the end of the rainbow. I used to think that, too, until I tried it. I'm happy being a housewife; I don't care to get a degree. But the people I associate with, the first thing they ask is where did you get your degree. I answer, "I don't have a degree." Christ, they look at you like you are some sort of a freak, some backwoodsman your husband picked up along the way. They actually believe that people with degrees are better. In fact, I think they are worse. I've found a lot of people without degrees that are a hell of a lot smarter than these people. They think that just because they have degrees they are something special. These poor kids that think they have to go to college or they are ruined. It seems that we are trying to perpetrate a fraud on these kids. If no degree, they think they will end up

digging ditches the rest of their lives. They are looked down upon. That makes me sick.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 4

HELPEE: It's not an easy thing to talk about. I guess the heart of the problem is sort of a sexual problem. I never thought I would have this sort of problem. But I find myself not getting the fulfillment I used to. It's not as enjoyable -- for my husband either, although we don't discuss it. I used to enjoy and look forward to making love. I used to have an orgasm but I don't any more. I can't remember the last time I was satisfied. I find myself being attracted to other men and wondering what it would be like to go to bed with them. I don't know what this means. Is this symptomatic of our whole relationship as a marriage? Is something wrong with me or us?

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 5

HELPEE: I'm so pleased with the kids. They are doing just marvelously. They have done so well at school and at home; they get along together. It's amazing. I never thought they would. They seem a little older. They play together better and they enjoy each other and I enjoy them. Life has become so much easier. It's really a joy to raise three boys. I didn't think it would be. I'm just so pleased and hopeful for the future. For them and for us. It's just great! I can't believe it. It's marvelous.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 6

HELPEE: I finally found somebody I can really get along with. There is no pretentiousness about them at all. They are real and they understand me. I can be myself with them. I don't have to worry about what I say and that they might take me wrong, because I do sometimes say things that don't come out the way that I want them to. I don't have to worry that they are going to criticize me. They are just marvelous people! I just can't wait to be with them. For once I actually enjoy going out and interacting. I didn't think I could ever find people

like this again. I can really be myself. It's such a wonderful feeling not to have people criticizing you for everything you say that doesn't agree with them. They are warm and understanding and I just love them! It's just marvelous.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 7

HELPEE: I love my children and my husband and I like doing most household things. They get boring at times but on the whole I think it can be a very rewarding thing at times. I don't miss working, going to the office every day. Most women complain of being just a housewife and just a mother. But then, again, I wonder if there is more for me. Others say there has to be. I really don't know.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 8

HELPEE: Silence. (Moving about in chair)

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 9

HELPEE: I'm really excited the way things are going at home with my husband. It's just amazing. We get along great together now. Sexually, I didn't know we could be that happy. I didn't know anyone could be that happy. It's just marvelous! I'm just so pleased, I don't know what else to say.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 10

HELPEE: I get so frustrated and furious with my daughter. I just don't know what to do with her. She is bright and sensitive, but damn, she has some characteristics that make me so on edge. I can't handle it sometimes. She just -- I feel myself getting more and more angry! She won't do what you tell her to. She tests limits like mad. I scream and yell and lose control and

think there is something wrong with me -- I'm not an understanding mother or something. Damn! What potential! What she could do with what she has. There are times she doesn't need what she's got. She gets by too cheaply. I just don't know what to do with her. Then she can be so nice and then, boy, she can be as ornery as she can be. And then I scream and yell and I'm about ready to slam her across the room. I don't like to feel this way. I don't know what to do with it.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 11

HELPEE: He is ridiculous! Everything has to be done when he wants to do it. The way he wants it done. It's as if nobody else exists. It's everything he wants to do. There is a range of things I have to do. Not just be a housewife and take care of the kids. Oh no, I have to do his typing for him, errands for him. If I don't do it right away, I'm stupid -- I'm not a good wife or something stupid like that. I have an identity of my own and I'm not going to have it wrapped up in him. It makes me -- it infuriates me! I want to punch him right in the mouth. What am I going to do? Who does he think he is, anyway?

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 12

HELPEE: I'm really excited! We are going to California. I'm going to have a second lease on life. I found a marvelous job. It's great! It's so great, I can't believe it's true -- it's so great! I have a secretarial job. I can be a mother and can have a part time job which I think I will enjoy very much. I can be home when the kids get home from school. It's too good to be true. It's so exciting. New horizons are unfolding. I just can't wait to get started. It's great!

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 13

HELPEE: I'm so thrilled to have found a counselor like you. I didn't know any existed. You seem to understand me so well. It's just great! I feel like I'm coming alive again. I have not felt like this in so long.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 14

HELPEE: I don't know if I am right or wrong feeling the way I do. But I find myself withdrawing from people. I don't seem to socialize and play their stupid little games any more. I get upset and come home depressed and have headaches. It seems all so superficial. There was a time when I used to get along with everybody. Everybody said, "Isn't she wonderful. She gets along with everybody. Everybody likes her." I used to think that was something to be really proud of, but that was who I was at that time. I had no depth. I was what the crowd wanted me to be -- the particular group I was with.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 15

HELPEE: Gee, those people! Who do they think they are? I just can't stand interacting with them any more. Just a bunch of phonies. They leave me so frustrated. They make me so anxious, I get angry at myself. I don't even want to be bothered with them any more. I just wish I could be honest with them and tell them all to go to hell! But I guess I just can't do it.

1. RESPONSE: _____

Excerpt 16

HELPEE: Sometimes I question my adequacy of raising three boys, especially the baby. I call him the baby -- well, he is the last. I can't have any more. So I know I kept him a baby longer than the others. He won't let anyone else do things for him. If someone else opens the door he says he wants Mommy to do it. If he closes the door. I have to open it. I encourage this. I do it. I don't know if this is right or wrong. He insists on sleeping with me every night and I allow it. And he says when he grows up he won't do it any more. Right now he is my baby and I don't discourage this much. I don't know if this comes out of my needs or if I'm making too much out of the situation or if this will handicap him when he goes to school -- breaking away from Mamma. Is it going to be a traumatic experience for him? Is it something I'm creating for him? I do worry more about my children than I think most mothers do.

1. RESPONSE: _____

APPENDIX B-2

Free Response Questionnaire

DIRECTIONS:

The following excerpts represent ten conversations which vary in both the content and emotional feeling expressed. You may think of these conversations as coming from a person who has come to you for help, or maybe simply to talk. For example, the person may be your best friend or someone who is in one of your classes. We would like you to respond to each excerpt as you would to such a friend or acquaintance. Thus, as you read through each conversation imagine, in your own mind, that this person you know is saying what you are hearing.

Please write your response after the letter A. In making up your responses keep in mind that you want to say something which will be helpful for the person; something which he could use effectively in his own life.

Following each excerpt it would be helpful to us if you wrote down the (B) content of the person's conversation or the main idea expressed, and also (C) the emotional feeling which seems to dominate the person's conversation.

Listen very carefully to the tape recorder. You will be given one minute after each conversation in which to write down your response.

EXAMPLE: I just am not sure what to do or say. If I say
what first comes into my mind I might be criticized.

- A. RESPONSE: You think I would probably criticize what you
want to say?
- B. CONTENT: Person in a state of indecision - confusion.
- D. FEELING: Worried, fear of embarrassment.

Conversation 1

I don't know if I am right or wrong feeling the way I do. But I find myself withdrawing from people. I don't seem to want to play their stupid little games any more. I get upset and come home depressed and have headaches. It all seems so phony. There was a time when I used to get along with everybody. I used to think that was the thing to do. But I wasn't myself. I was what the crowd wanted me to be.

- A. RESPONSE: _____
- B. Content: _____
- C. Feeling: _____

Conversation 2

They wave graduation up like it's a pot of gold at the end of the rainbow. I used to think that, too, but now I'm not so sure. I'm happy the way I am. I don't care about graduation. I've found a lot of people who haven't graduated that are a lot smarter than most people. Some kids think that just because they have graduated they are something special. They think they have to go to university or they will end up digging ditches the rest of their lives. That makes me sick.

- A. RESPONSE: _____
- B. CONTENT: _____
- C. FEELING: _____

Conversation 3

I'm really excited! We are going to California for a holiday. I've always wanted to go to California. It's great. It's so great, I can't believe it's true. I know we're going to enjoy it. I just can't wait until we leave.

- A. RESPONSE: _____
- B. CONTENT: _____
- C. FEELING: _____

Conversation 4

I'm so disappointed. I thought we could get along together. We don't seem to be getting anywhere. You don't listen to me. You don't even know I'm here. You seem to be somewhere else. I don't know where to turn. I'm just so - I don't know what I'm going to do. There's just no hope.

- A. RESPONSE: _____
- B. CONTENT: _____
- C. FEELING: _____

Conversation 5

Those kids! Who do they think they are? I can't stand being with them any more. Just a bunch of phonies. They make me so frustrated I get mad at myself. I don't want to be bothered with them anymore. I wish I could be honest with them and tell them off! But I guess I can't do that?

- A. RESPONSE: _____
- B. CONTENT: _____
- C. FEELING: _____

Conversation 6

I don't know what I'm going to do now.

Silence (person looks as though she's about to cry).

A. RESPONSE: _____

B. CONTENT: _____

C. FEELING: _____

Conversation 7

I finally found some people I can really get along with. They are real and they understand me. I can be myself with them. I don't have to worry about what I say because they might take me wrong. I don't have to worry that they will criticize me. They are just great! I can't wait to be with them. It's such a wonderful feeling not to have people criticizing you for everything you say that doesn't agree with them. They are warm and understanding and I love them!

A. RESPONSE: _____

B. CONTENT: _____

C. FEELING: _____

Conversation 8

I get so frustrated with my mother. I just don't know what to do with her. I can't handle it sometimes. She just - I feel myself getting more and more angry! She can be so nice and then, boy, she can be as stubborn as can be. And then I feel like screaming. I don't like to feel this way, but I don't know what to do about it.

A. RESPONSE: _____

B. CONTENT: _____

C. FEELING: _____

Conversation 9

I get so mad at my father. Everything has to be done when he wants it. It's as if nobody else exists. If I don't do it right away, I'm stupid - I'm no good or something stupid like that. I have my own life and I'm not going to have him run it. It makes me - I'm so mad. I want to punch him right in the mouth. What am I going to do? Who does he think he is?

A. RESPONSE: _____

B. CONTENT: _____

C. FEELING: _____

Conversation 10

I'm really excited the way things are going at school. It's just amazing! I get along great with everybody now. I didn't know I could be so happy. It's just great! I'm so happy I don't know what else to say.

A. RESPONSE: _____

B. CONTENT: _____

C. FEELING: _____

APPENDIX C

Appendix C-1 Interview Instructions - Student

Appendix C-2 Interview Instructions - Interviewer

APPENDIX C-1

STUDENT INSTRUCTIONS

It has often been said that the most damaging effects of a modern, mechanized society such as ours, are pollution and dehumanization. Hardly a day goes by that we do not hear or read about some new area of our country that has been laid waste by the ravages of pollution. Yet, we may be thankful that popular opinion in the fight against pollution, is quickly swinging to the side of the ecologist.

On the other hand, little is said or done about the wasted human potential, of people caught up in the struggle to survive in a modern, industrial society. Cities become a tangle of fences - those to keep people in and those to keep people out - where everyone is afraid of everyone else.

Many schools have also developed an impersonal atmosphere. Indeed, they have been accused of becoming people factories, where students are molded into boxes, stamped with a number and shipped off to employers at the end of Grade 12.

It is the hope of many people, that this whole process can be stopped in its tracks by the students themselves. If students resist being dehumanized, by talking, listening, trying to understand and helping each other, then it could come about.

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. To get the interview started, you should select a topic which is important to you. Once you have begun, other important topics may also come into the conversation.
2. Whether you talk about very many of your feelings about these topics will probably depend on how willing the other student is to listen and try to understand you.
3. The interview should last about 25 minutes.
4. Remember, you should begin the interview.

APPENDIX C-2

INTERVIEWER INSTRUCTIONS

It has often been said that the most damaging effects of a modern, mechanized society such as ours, are pollution and dehumanization. Hardly a day goes by that we do not hear or read about some new area of our country that has been laid waste by the ravages of pollution. Yet, we may be thankful that popular opinion, in the fight against pollution, is quickly swinging to the side of the ecologist.

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Many schools have also developed an impersonal atmosphere. Indeed, they have been accused of becoming people factories, where students are molded into boxes, stamped with a number and shipped out to employers at the end of Grade 12.

It is the hope of many people, that this whole process can be stopped in its tracks by the students themselves. If students resist being dehumanized, by talking, listening, trying to understand and helping each other, then it could come about.

Purpose

In this interview, it is hoped that you will find out more about how you as a student can listen to understand, and help other students.

Instructions;

1. You should interview this other student for about 25 minutes.
2. The other student has been instructed to begin the interview by discussing a topic which is important to him.
3. Your goal should be to talk to this student and try to understand as much as you can about him during the short interview.

APPENDIX D

Test for Differences in Attendance Between
Treatment and Control Groups

APPENDIX D

t TEST FOR DIFFERENCES IN ATTENDANCE BETWEEN
TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

Percentage of Classes Attended	Classification	
	Treatment	Control
Number	28	27
Mean	80.56	76.22
S.D.	14.26	11.62
df	53	
t	1.11	
Probability	N.S.	

APPENDIX E

Appendix E-1 Rationale Underlying the CUE Training Program

Appendix E-2 Communication of Empathy Manual

APPENDIX E-1

Rationale Underlying the CUE Training Program

In a review of the literature on empathy, it was found that most frames of reference emphasize both the cognitive and the affective components involved in understanding the feelings of others. Further conditions were offered by Truax and Carkhuff (1967, p.46), who define empathy as "a sensitivity to the other person's current feelings, and the verbal facility to communicate this understanding in a language attuned to those feelings." Here, communication of empathy constitutes the essential variable in determining whether or not the other person realizes he is being understood.

It is important to note that a convergence of client-centered and psychoanalytic thinking has produced the measures of empathy most highly related to indexes of client change or gain (Truax and Carkhuff, 1964). That is, the measures of empathy most highly predictive of change integrate the client-centered notion of the reflection of feelings and the analytic emphasis upon diagnostic accuracy (Bergin, 1966). Relying heavily upon his skills of communication, the therapist attempts to move to levels of feeling and experience deeper than those communicated by the client, yet within a range of expression which the client can effectively employ at that time. The therapist's ability to communicate at high levels of empathy has been shown to involve the ability to allow himself to experience or merge in the experience of the client, reflect upon this experience while suspending his own judgments, tolerating his own anxiety, and communicating this understanding to the client (Fox and Goldin, 1964; Katz, 1963; Truax and

Carkhuff, 1966). Thus, as the therapist proceeds with his client in exploring previously unexplored areas of human living and human relationships, it is the communication of his ever-growing awareness of the client, and of himself in relation to the client, which provides the client with the experiential base for change (Carlton, 1967).

With empathy, then, we find a number of important dynamics that emphasize the underlying understanding of the therapist for himself and others, along with the more basic techniques employed to communicate this understanding. Thus, these components form the basis of the CUE (Communicating Understanding and Empathy) training program, which offers skills which may be learned and employed to improve the communication of empathy.

The Scale for the Measurement of Empathy in Interpersonal Processes serves as the basic model for the CUE training program. As seen in Figure 3, four component skills must be achieved by the counsellor if he is to function at higher levels (Levels 4 and 5) of communicated empathy. These skills are taught in the CUE training program through a series of didactic teaching and self-learning experiences. A tentative list, according to lesson content may be given as follows:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Communication and Awareness | Lesson 3 - Paraphrase |
| of Client's Expressed | 4 - Listening |
| Feelings | 5 - Behavior Description |
| | 6 - Description of Feeling |
| | 7 - Expression of Feeling |
| | 9 - Directive & Non- |
| | Directive Questioning |
| | 10 - Biased Story |

2. Awareness of Client's

Inner Feelings

Lesson 5 - Behavior Description

6 - Description of Feelings

7 - Expression of Feelings

9 -

10 -

3. Self Awareness and

Awareness of Other's

Inner Feelings

Lesson 1 - The Arab Trader

2 - Building Trust

11 - Games People Play

12 - One Way/Two Way

Communication

13 - Non-Verbal Communication

14 - Decision by Consensus

15 - Social Perception

16 - Individual Interviews

4. Integration of Communication,

Awareness of Other's Inner

Feelings and Self-Experiencing

Lessons 8-13 - Communication of

Empathy Role-Playing

LEVEL OF COMMUNICATED EMPATHY

CLIENT	1	2	3	4	5	REQUIRED COUNSELOR SKILLS
Present Obvious Feelings	ignores	often accurate	accurate	accurate	unhesitating, flawless accuracy	Communication & Awareness of Client's Expressed Feelings
Veiled Feelings		understands poorly	sensitive but somewhat inaccurate interpretation	accurate	unhesitating, flawless accuracy	Awareness of Client's Inner Feelings
Preconscious Feelings				a precise "pointing toward"	sensitive exploration	Self Awareness & Awareness of Client's Inner Feelings

Figure 3

CUE



CUE

Communicating Understanding
and Empathy

MANUAL

by

Glenn Hundleby

Department of Educational Psychology
University of Alberta
June, 1972

Our everyday experience testifies to the fact that empathy is one of our human potentials, and that it can go far toward saving man from psychic isolation. However, our everyday experience, and the desperate plight of our world, also testify to the fact that the empathic potential remains chiefly a potential.

(Overstreet, 1950)

Communicating Understanding and Empathy

Introduction

CUE is a program of lessons and activities designed to help people better understand themselves and others. Particular emphasis is placed on learning to communicate understanding and empathy.

CUE is intended for use as an inservice training program for professional helpers, such as physicians, nurses, social workers, teachers and counsellors. It may also be modified for use as a basic training program for university and high school students, support staff in the helping professions, or for lay persons generally.

CUE provides opportunities for personal growth in an atmosphere of trust and mutual cooperation. Through CUE a person is able to develop a sensitivity to the causal, purposive and consequential nature of his behavior, and to recognize the role of such behavior in his relationships with others. In addition, group members are presented with role-playing exercises where they can witness and experience the skills they are attempting to acquire.

CUE recognizes that the feelings which accompany learning often affect its results. Thoughts and actions always involve feelings. Thus, each lesson is based on the premise that the affective domain is an important part of the learning process. Discussion of feeling is typified by understanding, genuine concern and personal openness.

Directions for using CUE

CUE is intended for use by teachers, counsellors, social workers, psychologists and other professional helpers. If the sixteen lessons in the program are used directly as presented, there are enough exercises and materials for twenty hours instruction. This should be considered a minimum length of time. By using each lesson as a basic model, discussion periods and role-playing exercises may be extended to add many more hours of training.

Of fundamental importance in the use of this program is the trainer's form and level of communication in the teaching process. A trainer's words may say "you are all right", but his tone of voice, the anxiety reflected in his facial expressions, and other nonverbal cues will in most cases speak louder than words.

The trainer, through his actions, presents a live model of effective functioning. To fulfil this goal, he must be able to use and demonstrate effective responses in communicating understanding and empathy. At the same time he must remain responsive to potential difficulties and blocks to learning emanating from within himself and other group members.

The outcomes of each lesson are at least partially dependent upon the trainer's competence in the following tasks:

1. He shows the group that he cares and is concerned with developing a relationship of acceptance and mutual respect. The trainer sets an example by his own responses to other members of the group.
2. He senses the group atmosphere and is willing to discuss it. At the same time he is sensitive to the feelings of individuals in the group.
3. He selectively reinforces and gradually shapes the behavior of group members. The trainer's didactic functions include articulating the concepts being taught, clarifying their meaning, eliciting group practice in communicating understanding and empathy, guiding and shaping responses through selective reinforcement and correction, and offering alternate and more empathic responses.
4. He must be alert to feelings and attitudes which may be implied but not expressed, and be prepared to lead individual group members to tentatively explore such feelings.

Group Discussions and Role Playing Procedures

The most important types of activity in the CUE program are group discussion and role-playing. While most people are acquainted with the values of such procedures, there is often a tendency to focus on a consideration of the facts, emphasizing only cognitive elements.

In a recent study, Randolph, Howe and Achterman (1968) found that people traditionally respond to messages with ineffective responses, such as:

ordering or commanding	probing, questioning or diverting
admonishing	criticizing and disagreeing
warning	praising and agreeing
advising	name calling or interpreting
instructing	reassuring and sympathy

These responses deny the other person the right to have feelings, and they close the channels to communication and understanding.

While the CUE program is concerned with the development of certain cognitive concepts, attention must be focused on the feelings which accompany learning. CUE allows people to develop a better understanding of themselves and others, and specifically demonstrates how such understanding and empathy can be effectively communicated. This can be achieved only through personalizing the material and

getting involvement at the feeling level.

It is clear that group discussion and role-playing techniques can be a most powerful influence in changing behavior. However, as in most forms of education, the group can seldom go beyond the skills, the sensitivity, and the expectations of the leader.

G.D.H.
1972

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LESSON I: UNDERSTANDING OURSELVES

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Material
1.	20 minutes	<p>Theory</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Introduce program b. Discuss objectives 	Handout 1:1
2.	5 minutes	<p><u>Role-playing</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Introduce "Arab Trader" b. Divide class into groups according to instructions 	
3.	10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Groups discuss positions b. Groups select a representative 	
4.	20 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Representatives state their positions b. Representatives attempt to agree on a single answer 	
5.	15 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Class forms into new groups of five b. Discussion using questions on handout 	Handout 1:2
6.	10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Leader leads discussion with entire class. Focus on feelings experienced by students 	

Total Time - 80 minutes.

LESSON I

UNDERSTANDING OURSELVES

Theory

1. Distribute Handout 1 and have the class read.
2. Trainer should outline objectives of the program, answering any questions.

Role-playing

THE ARAB TRADER

1. Clear away all materials from desks.
2. Read the following:

An Arab trader buys a young camel for \$30.
He sells the camel for \$40.
Later, he buys the camel back again for \$50.
He sells the camel for \$60.
How much profit did he make?

(Repeat once or twice until everyone is sure they have the correct information)

3. Divide the class into groups of approximately five on the basis of their answers. (There may be \$0, \$10, \$20, and \$30 groups)
4. Groups are to discuss the basis for their position and find reasons why other positions are incorrect.
5. Each group is to select a representative to defend the group's answer before the rest of the class.
6. Representatives are to form a group in the center of the room. Those not participating can gather around the outside, but must not talk.
7. Representatives can state their group's position only by talking. The use of paper, pencils, money or any other visual aids are not allowed.
8. The correct answer is: \$20

Discussion: (see handout 1:2)

LESSON 2: BUILDING TRUST

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
1.	10 minutes	<p><u>Role-playing</u></p> <p>a. Divide the class into four equal groups. Position one group in each corner of the room</p> <p>b. Introduce "Trust" exercise and read instructions to the class</p>	Handout 2:1
2.	4 minutes	<p>a. Groups make first decision</p> <p>b. Leader post score on the blackboard</p>	
3.	4 minutes	a. Groups make second decision	
4.	4 minutes	a. Groups make third decision	
5.	10 minutes	<p>a. Groups choose a negotiator. Negotiators meet in the center of the room. Only negotiators are allowed to talk</p> <p>b. Groups make fourth decision</p>	
6.	6 minutes	<p>a. Negotiators meet in the center of the room</p> <p>b. Groups make fifth decision</p>	

LESSON 2: BUILDING TRUST

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
7.	6 minutes	a. Negotiators meet in the center of the room b. Groups make sixth decision	
8.	4 minutes	a. Groups make seventh decision	
9.	6 minutes	a. Negotiators meet b. Groups make eighth decision	
10.	6 minutes	a. Negotiators meet b. Groups make ninth decision	
11.	4 minutes	a. Groups make tenth decision	
12.	6 minutes	a. Leader totals scores on the blackboard b. "Trust" scores for each round may be calculated	
13.	10 minutes	<u>Theory</u> a. Assemble class for discussion See discussion questions.	

 Total Time - 80 minutes.

LESSON 2

BUILDING TRUST

Role-playing

1. Divide the class into four equal groups. Position one group in each corner of the room so that all groups can see one another. Give each group a number (1 to 4).
2. Distribute Handout 1 to each group. Persons requesting more information should be instructed to read the instructions again, carefully.
3. Pass out a slip of paper to each group and have them write their number on it. Then, allow 5 minutes for the groups to make their first decision. This decision (either X or Y) should also be written on the paper. Collect the slips of paper and write the decision of each group on the blackboard for everyone to see. Have the groups record their own scores on the score sheets provided. Repeat this procedure for each round.
4. Preceding rounds 4, 5, 6, 8, and 9, the negotiators (one from each group) meet together in the center of the room. The negotiators should talk loud enough so that everyone can hear them, however, no one else may speak. Different persons from the groups may be negotiators for succeeding rounds. The goal of the negotiation period is to reach agreement among the groups.
5. Following round 10, the total scores may be recorded on the blackboard. "Trust" scores may be obtained for each round by adding the scores vertically on the score sheet.

Theory

1. Assemble the class for a discussion of the following questions:
 - a. What are some of the feelings that came to you while the exercise was going on?
 - b. How do you feel now about the decisions your group made?
 - c. Could your feelings have been different?
 - d. What would you say is needed to cooperate with the other groups?
 - e. Did you trust any other group? Why?
 - f. How could trust be built up in this exercise?

LESSON 3: PARAPHRASE

Teacher Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
1.	10 minutes	<u>Theory</u>	
		a. Teacher demonstration	
2.	15 minutes	a. Introduce "Basic Communication Skills".	Handout 3:1
		b. Read over handout 3:1 and discuss with class	
3.	15 minutes	a. Introduce "Paraphrase"	
		b. Read over handout 3:2 and discuss with class.	Handout 3:2
4.	15 minutes	<u>Role-playing</u>	
		a. Divide class into trios	
		b. Role-playing in trios	
5.	10 minutes	a. Feedback and impression within trios	
6.	10 minutes	a. Groups of six discuss "Where can I use the skill of paraphrase".	
7.	5 minutes	a. Teacher leads class discussion in uses of paraphrase	Handout 3:3

 Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 3

PARAPHRASE

Theory

1. Trainer demonstrates the use of paraphrase. Show difference between true paraphrase and word-swapping.
2. Introduce "Basic Communication Skills" (Handout 1).
 - A. Reception Skills - paraphrase
- perception check
 - B. Transmission Skills - behavior description
- description of Feeling
3. Introduce paraphrase (Handout 2). Go through handout having students role-play examples. Have students make up their own examples.

Role-Playing

1. Divide the class into trios. Topic for discussion is: "Problems I have (or do not have) communicating with others." One student will attempt to communicate his thoughts and feelings on the topic to another trio member who will then paraphrase what he feels the first person meant. The third member should observe this interaction and offer feedback to those involved. Trio members should take turns playing each of the roles.
NOTE: At the beginning, it will be easier if communications are kept to one sentence in length.
2. Ask students to think about and share with other members of their group their impressions up to this point. This will again be done in trios, with the third member giving feedback on paraphrasing. The same ground rule applies: the person receiving another's first impressions paraphrases the message he receives.
3. Combine trios to form groups of six to discuss the topic: "Where can I use the skill of paraphrasing." The ticket of admission to this discussion will be paraphrasing. After the discussion begins, persons who wish to join in the conversation must first paraphrase what the last person said. The person must accept the version of the paraphrase before the second speakers continues.
4. Distribute Handout 3. In addition to paraphrasing what another person says, it is also appropriate and helpful to ask another person to paraphrase what you have said if you are not sure that he understands.

LESSON 4: LISTENING

Teacher Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
1.	5 minutes	<u>Theory</u> a. Divide class into four groups b. Students prepare paper	Scrap paper
2.	10 minutes	a. Teacher reads stories b. Students fill in paper	
3.	5 minutes	a. Students compare responses with others in the group	
4.	5 minutes	a. Teacher leads class discussion on problems of thinking and listening at the same time	
5.	5 minutes	a. Introduce exercise "Hot Air Balloons" b. Read story to class	Handout 4:1
6.	5 minutes	a. Students answer quiz	
7.	10 minutes	a. Students compare and discuss answers within their groups	
8.	5 minutes	a. Teacher leads class discussion	
<u>Role-Playing</u>			

LESSON 4: LISTENING

Teacher Information:

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
9.	5 minutes	a. Divide class and distribute story "Getting Even" according to directions	
10.	10 minutes	a. Discussion in groups	
11.	5 minutes	a. Reports from each group	
12.	10 minutes	a. Discussion led by leader.	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 4

LISTENING

Theory:

Exercise A

1. Divide the class into four groups. Each student is to take a piece of paper and draw a line down the middle. The left-hand column can be labelled "speaking", with the right column "thinking".
2. The leader reads the following stories (1. The Plastic Car is Coming, 2. Bee Stings Can be Dangerous), stopping in midstream where indicated. At this point the students are to write down what was said just before the stop. This should be written in the "speaking" column. Under "thinking" the students should write down what they were thinking about when the stop came.
3. Allow students to check their papers within the group.
4. Discuss some of the reasons why students were not listening carefully, and what they were thinking about at the time.

Exercise B

1. Divide the class into four groups. Tell them to listen very carefully to what you are about to read.
2. Carefully read the excerpt "Hot-Air Balloons" to the class.
3. After reading the excerpt, distribute the quiz to each student. (Handout 4:1).
4. Read out the answers when each student has completed the quiz.
5. Discuss some of the reasons why students answered incorrectly. What factors aid or inhibit careful listening? How did the students listen - specifically or generally?

Role-Playing

1. Divide the class into three groups (A, B, and C). Take two students from group A and one from Group B and send them out of the room for a moment.

LESSON 4

2. Give the story "Getting Even" to another student from group A to read to himself. Collect the written copy when he is sure he understands the story. He then tells the story to one of his colleagues waiting outside the room. This process is repeated, with the last person to hear the story being the student from group B. All students should then return to their groups.

3. Written copies of the story are given to students in group C.

4. At this point the groups have the same information, but from a number of different sources.

Group A - has one person who has read the original story and two persons who have received it secondhand.

Group B - has only one person who has heard the story and he heard it fourth-hand

Group C - everyone in the group has the original story to refer to.

5. Discussion in groups should center around the following questions which can be put on the blackboard:

- a. What are the facts of the story?
- b. How did Jim feel?
- c. What kind of person was Jim?
- d. What kind of person was Mr. Jenkins?
- e. How would you like the story to end?
- f. How will the story probably end?
- g. What kind of person is the principal?

6. Have each group report the results of their discussion of the above questions

7. Have each group report their version of the story. Someone from group C can read the original story.

8. Discussion:

- a. Did all groups stay with the facts?
- b. What happened as the facts were distorted?
- c. Did any group make up an ending they wanted to happen rather than staying with the facts of the story?
- d. Which group brought their own wishes into the story?
- e. How do you feel towards the principal?
- f. How do you feel towards Jim?
- g. Are there different feelings in different groups?

LESSON 4

THE PLASTIC CAR IS COMING¹

The use of metal parts in automobiles has been shrinking in weight and number for the last 10 years, and the ingenuity of plastics manufacturers continues to cut into areas where steel and iron have been traditionally used. Latest switch to plastic is the intake manifold.

STOP

in the 1972 Porsche. Made of an injection molded plastic, the manifold is lighter, has smoother bores and costs less than the metal part it replaced. The significant feature of this plastic application is its use in an area of high temperatures. Attached directly to the engine, what this means to the buyer

STOP

is lighter weight, less expensive replacement costs, and better distribution of the air/fuel mixture from the carburetor to the combustion chamber. Look for other manufacturers to take a close look at the Porsche plastic manifold for use in their own cars.

STOP

¹Dunne J. Detroit Report. Popular Science. January 1972, p. 48

LESSON 4

BEE STINGS CAN BE DANGEROUS¹

Doctors are taking a longer, harder look at bees and wasps, and they don't like what they see. There are approximately 40 deaths reported annually from bee, wasp, hornet and yellow jacket stings. Even this small number is startling

STOP

when you consider that only 14 people a year in this country die of poison snake bite. Doctors say the real cause of death in a bee sting case is often overlooked. The killer, bee venom, is hidden behind the obvious symptoms of shock

STOP

unless he is otherwise informed, a doctor has little reason to blame a bee sting for his patient's lungs having filled with fluid.

STOP

¹Taken from Mort Schultz, the not so harmless bee. Mechanix Illustrated, June 1970, p.4

LESSON 4

HOT-AIR BALLOONS

The first hot-air balloonists were a duck, a rooster and a woolly sheep. That was back in 1783 in Paris. They went aloft for eight minutes and landed safely in a huge, but frail, linen and paper balloon built by the Montgolfier brothers, who started it all.

As ballooning progressed, hydrogen and other lighter-than-air gases replaced hot-air. Straw, used for fuel to heat the air, had a dangerous tendency to send up sparks, igniting the fabric and sending the balloonist to earth fast without his balloon.

In 1960, hot-air ballooning was reborn when Ed Yost of Sioux Falls, South Dakota, flew a 40 foot nylon envelope for 30 minutes heating the balloon's air with a propane burner.

Gaining altitude is simple. Intermittently opening and closing a blast valve shoots heat up into the balloon. To provide lifting force, the air inside the balloon must be at least 100 degrees warmer than the outside air. A sensor at the top of the balloon is connected to a pyrometer in the gondola for accurate temperature control. The pyrometer redlines at 275 degrees. Heating the balloon above the redline can damage the fabric.

Answers to Quiz:

1. F
2. T
3. F
4. F
5. F
6. F
7. F
8. T
9. F
10. F

LESSON 5: BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION

Teacher Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	10 minutes	a. Introduce demonstration b. Begin demonstration	
2.	15 minutes	a. Make a list of "Behavior Descriptions" b. Discuss list with class	
3.	15 minutes	a. Distribute "Behavior Description" b. Read and discuss examples with class	Handout 5:1
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
4.	10 minutes	a. Group A discussion with Group B observing	
5.	5 minutes	a. Observers share observations	
6.	10 minutes	a. Group B discussion with Group A observing	
7.	5 minutes	a. Observers share observations	
8.	10 minutes	a. Teacher leads class discussion of behaviors observed	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 5

Behavior Description

Theory

1. Arrange the class for a demonstration. Select a boy and a girl to take part in the demonstration.
2. Instructions to all other students in the class:

WATCH THE FOLLOWING DEMONSTRATION VERY CAREFULLY. ON A PIECE OF PAPER, WRITE DOWN EVERYTHING YOU SEE HAPPENING.
3. Demonstration. The two students are to face each other and place their hands on the other's shoulder. They are to push downward as hard as they can. No talking is allowed during the demonstration, which should continue for approximately 2 - 3 minutes.
4. Ask students to read out their observations. Make a list on the board, separating "behavior descriptions" from inferences and evaluative statements. Briefly discuss differences in reporting observations, with the class.
5. Distribute Handout 1. Divide the class into three groups to discuss the examples given in the Handout.

Role-Playing

1. Groups should divide in half so that each is comprised of approximately six students. Three group members sit together in an inner circle (Group A) with the other three members sitting around the outside (Group B). Each member of group A is paired with a member from Group B, who is an observer. Observers are to write down what they see their partner doing, describing his behavior in the inner group. Group A is to discuss the topic: What happens to me when I have to do something in front of the class with everyone watching.
2. After 10 minutes, ask the pairs to meet together so that the observer can share his observations with his partner.
3. Ask Group B to take the inner circle while Group A observes. Group B should discuss the same topic.
4. After 10 minutes, ask the pairs to meet again to share observations.
5. Regroup into three groups again to share behavior descriptions with others and to critique results using the criteria in Handout 1. Identify any difficulties in describing behavior.

LESSON 6: DESCRIPTION OF FEELING

Teacher Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	15 minutes	a. Distribute handout and read instructions for Ex. A b. Slowly read "situations" allowing time for class to write down their feelings after each situation	Handout 1
2.	15 minutes	a. Distribute "Description of Feelings" b. Class reads handout and observes examples in groups.	Handout 2
3.	15 minutes	a. Class divides into trios b. Share responses to Handout, and apply criterio set out in handout 2.	
4.	10 minutes	a. Reassemble class to discuss difficulties in describing feelings b. Introduce "Perception Check"	
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
5.	25 minutes	a. Divide class into groups of three b. Role-playing with emphasis on reflection of feeling.	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 6

Description of Feeling

Theory

1. Distribute Handout 1. Read the following instructions to the class:

"Close your eyes and imagine yourself in the following situations. Attempt to block out everything around you and concentrate on imagining what is happening. How do you feel? When you are aware of your feelings, write them down. Also, write down what you would do when you experience these feelings." (See exercise A)

2. Divide the class into three groups. Distribute Handout 2 and discuss examples (leave "Perception Check" until later).
3. Divide into trios to share responses to Handout 1 and to apply criteria in Handout 2.
4. Reassemble class into three groups to discuss difficulties in describing feelings. The use of "Perception Check" can be introduced at this time.

Role-Playing

1. Divide the class into groups of three. Topic for discussion is "How I feel about practising communication skills in small groups." One student will communicate his feelings about the topic to another member of the trio, who will attempt to reflect or describe the feeling the other person is trying to convey. Paraphrase and Perception Check may be used as the basis for attempting responses which accurately describe the person's feeling. The third member of the trio should observe this interaction and offer feedback to those involved.
NOTE: It is helpful at this point to begin all responses with the words "you feel ..."
2. Trio members should take turns playing each of the roles.

LESSON 6

Exercise A

DESCRIBING YOUR FEELINGS

Situations

1. You are on your way home from school. It is a beautiful day ... the sun is shining. It is spring and all the trees are covered in new, deep green leaves. You see a good friend approaching and you are preparing to stop and talk with him. You have something you want to tell him. Your friend looks right at you, then looks down at the ground and passes you without a word.
2. You are sitting in your favorite class. The teacher is about to hand out the assignments you handed in last day. You had spent a long time preparing your assignment . . . you wonder if you will get a good mark. The teacher picks up the stack of papers off his desk and steps forward. He says that he enjoyed reading all the papers, but there was one that he thinks is exceptionally good . . . in fact, he will read the paper out loud to the class. As he begins you sense that what he is reading sounds a lot like your paper . . . perhaps someone wrote the same thing. No, it is your paper he is reading to the class. Everyone is waiting to see who wrote the paper. The teacher walks slowly over to your desk, places the paper in front of you and says, "That is an excellent paper. I am very impressed with you."
3. You are in a store . . . the sweater department. Someone who is very important to you is having a birthday tomorrow and you are buying them just the sweater you wish you could have. They sure will like it. Now you have wrapped the sweater and you are taking it over to their place. You go in and hand the present to them . . . only then do you notice that they are wearing a sweater a lot like the one you just got them . . . well maybe its an old sweater and its just about worn out. You say some thing about whether they have had the sweater very long. They reply, "No, I just got it. One thing I don't need is any more sweaters."

LESSON 7: EXPRESSION OF FEELING

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	15 minutes	a. Distribute handout and have students record how they express feelings	Handout 1
2.	10 minutes	a. Groups of three share responses to handout	
3.	5 minutes	a. Discussion with entire class	
4.	20 minutes	a. Arrange class into groups of three b. Distribute handout (Communication of Feeling by words) and have students complete according to directions.	Handout 2
5.	5 minutes	a. Discussion with entire class	
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
6.	25 minutes	a. Divide class into three groups b. "Charades" exercise for Communication of Feeling by actions.	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 7

Expression of Feeling

Theory:

1. Distribute Handout 1 and have the students write down how they express their feelings.
2. Form into trios to share responses to Handout 1.
3. Reassemble class into three groups. Discussion questions:
 - a. Do you always show your real feelings?
 - b. How do we hide our feelings?
 - c. What would happen if we really showed our feelings?
 - d. Does what you do without words show how you really feel?
 - e. If someone else acted the way you say you do, how would they feel, do you think?
 - f. How do you usually feel when you pretend rather than really showing your feelings?
4. Arrange students into groups of three. Distribute handout (Communication of Feelings by Words) and have students complete according to directions given. Note that students are to complete one item at a time.
5. Leader leads discussion with total class. Emphasis should be placed on identifying any difficulties experienced in the smaller groups. Also, leader should discuss situations where expression of feeling can be useful.

Role-Playing:

1. Divide the class into three groups. Each person is to write down a feeling on a piece of paper, fold the paper, and have someone in the group collect them. The slips of paper are then redistributed so that everyone in the group receives a "feeling" other than the one he himself wrote down.
2. One group member begins by expressing the feeling he received, by using actions and pantomime. The person expressing the feeling is not allowed to speak at any time. Beginning with the next person, and going around the group in order, each person asks a question which will hopefully lead to the feeling being identified. A maximum of 20 questions may be asked.

LESSON 7

Role-Playing:

3. This process is repeated until everyone in the group has taken part in acting out a feeling.
4. Subsequent rounds can be made more difficult by combining a feeling with content (eg. excited about a camping trip; embarrassed by having the same dress as another girl at a party)

LESSON 8: COMMUNICATION OF EMPATHY

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	15 minutes	a. Distribute Handout 1 and read through with students, explaining examples and making comparisons from level to level	Handout 8:1
2.	15 minutes	a. Distribute Handout 2 and read through, explaining examples	Handout 8:2
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
3.	15 minutes	a. Divide class into three groups Distribute Handout 3 b. Groups respond to feeling	Handout 8:3
4.	15 minutes	a. Distribute Handout 4 b. Leader demonstration	Handout 8:4
5.	20 minutes	a. Groups write down response using "response set". Group then rates responses of each member.	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 8

Communication of Empathy

Theory

1. Introduce the concept of empathy to the class

Definition: Understanding the thoughts and feelings of another person.

2. Distribute Handout 1 (Scale 1: Empathy in Interpersonal Processes). Explain how the scale is used to assess the level of communicated empathy. Explain difference between empathy and communicated empathy. Note the examples given for each level.
3. Distribute Handout 2 (Communication of Empathy). Explain the concept of an interchangeable response. Note the examples of +, - and interchangeable responses. Leader should demonstrate responses with individual students so that the class can experience the various levels of communicated empathy.

Role-Playing

1. Divide the class into three groups. Distribute Handout 3 (Sentence Stems).
2. Have one person within each group make a statement of how he is feeling. The "sentence stems" may be used to help in making these statements. Then, go around the rest of the group and have each student identify the feeling expressed. The person making the statement can then tell the group which of the feelings came closest to what he was trying to express. Continue until everyone in the group has given a statement of feeling, or longer if difficulty exists in identifying the correct feeling
3. Distribute handout 4 (Guidelines for the Communication of Empathy). Explain each point to the class, giving examples where necessary.
4. Leader should demonstrate a number of interchangeable responses. This may be done by the leader responding to feeling statements from class members. Also, the leader may respond to actual client statements from an audio tape.

LESSON 8

Communication of Empathy

Role-Playing

5. One student at a time should make a feeling statement as before. This time, however, each member of the group is to write down a response using the following response set in each case:

"You feel _____ because _____.
(add feeling) (add reason)

6. For each feeling statement, go around the group and have each member read his response. The group should rate these responses (-, interchangeable, or +). Emphasis should be placed on giving interchangeable responses, at this time. The leader should give his response at the end of each round, in addition to successively reinforcing student's responses which approach the interchangeable level. Continue until most responses have reached an interchangeable level.

LESSON 9: DIRECTIVE AND NON-DIRECTIVE QUESTIONING

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	5 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Divide the class into four groups b. Demonstrate direct - questioning 	
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
2.	10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Direct questioning interviews according to instructions. 	
<u>Theory</u>			
3.	5 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Demonstrate non-directive questioning 	
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
4.	15 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Non-Directive questioning interviews according to instructions b. Discussion in groups on the use of directive and non-directive questioning. 	
5.	25 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Repeat non-directive questioning method with other members of the group. 	

LESSON 9: DIRECTIVE AND NON-DIRECTIVE QUESTIONING

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
------	------	--------------	-----------

Role-Playing (EMPATHY)

- | | | | |
|----|------------|--|--|
| 6. | 20 minutes | a. Divide class into three groups
b. Group member respond verbally using the response set. Each response is rated by the group. | |
|----|------------|--|--|

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 9

Directive and Non-Directive Questioning

Theory

1. Divide the class into four groups. Have each group select two members (1 and 2) to begin. At this point, the leader should demonstrate the use of direct questioning:

eg. Do you like swimming?
Where did you go for your holidays?

Role-Playing

2. Following the demonstration, member number 1 should leave the group. The rest of the group will then interview member number 2. The purpose of this interview is to find out as much as possible about number 2. The group can only use the direct questioning method. This interview should not exceed 5 minutes
3. Member number 1 should now rejoin the group. He now interviews the group to find out as much as possible about number 2. He can only use the direct questioning method.

Theory

4. The leader should now demonstrate the use of non-directive questioning. Examples could include paraphrase, behavior description, description of feeling, perception check or interchangeable responses.

Role-Playing

5. Following the demonstration, member number 3 should leave the group. The rest of the group will then interview member number 4. This time, however, the group is to use only the non-directive questioning method. This interview should not exceed 5 minutes.
6. Member number 3 should now rejoin the group. He now interviews the group to find out as much as possible about number 4. He can only use the non-directive questioning method.

LESSON 9

Directive and Non-Directive Questioning

Role-Playing

7. After the above interview has been completed, the groups should discuss both methods of questioning:
 - a. Which method seemed easiest to use?
 - b. Which method seemed to lead to a better understanding of the person?
 - c. How did the participants feel about each method?
8. Repeat the above method of non-directive questioning with group members 5 and 6, 7, and 8, etc.

Role-Playing (EMPATHY)

1. Divide the class into three groups. Leader should begin by demonstrating a number of interchangeable responses.
2. One student at a time should make a statement of feeling, as before. Each member of the group then responds verbally to the person making the statement, use the same response set as before:

"You feel _____ because _____.

(add feeling) (add reason)
3. The group should rate the responses given (-, interchangeable or +). Emphasis should be placed on giving interchangeable responses. The leader should give his response at the end of each round. In addition, he should successively reinforce student's responses which approach at interchangeable level. Continue until most responses have reached an interchangeable level.

LESSON 10: BIASED STORY

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	15 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Divide the class into four groups and distribute Report A to two of the groups and Report B to the other two groups b. Groups determine facts of the incident. 	Handout 10:1A Handout 10:1B
2.	10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Representatives from each group report their facts and conclusions to the rest of the class b. Leader writes facts and conclusions on the blackboard as they are reported, pointing out discrepancies. 	
3.	15 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Distribute Handout 2 to the whole class, as well as the opposing slanted report b. Group discussion on slanted reports 	Handout 10:2
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
4.	30 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Divide the class into three groups b. Group members respond to live or taped statements while the rest of the group rates the responses. 	

LESSON 10: BIASED STORY

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
5.	10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Group form into pairsb. Pairs practice responding in a continuous interaction instead of the single response made used until now.	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 10

BIASED STORY

Theory

1. Divide the class into four groups and give each group either report A or report B of the following incident.
(Two groups work on each version).
2. Each group is to determine the facts of the incident as presented in their own report. They should begin with such questions as:
 - a. Who is involved?
 - b. What happened?
 - c. Where did the incident occur?
 - d. When did the incident occur (Time)?
 - e. Who is at fault?
 - f. What conclusions does the group draw from the summary?
3. Allow about 5-10 minutes for the groups to record the facts and conclusions they wish to present to the class.
4. Have a spokesman for each group report the group's views to the class. List the points on the blackboard for comparison.
5. Distribute the following "Factual Version", as well as the opposing slanted view. Have the class read the material.
6. Discussion:
 - a. What is the view of the author in each version?
 - b. What techniques were applied to accomplish his view?
 - c. What were the results of the slanted stories?

Role-Playing

1. Divide the class into three groups.
2. One student in the group should make a statement of how he is feeling to the student sitting next to him, who will then respond at an interchangeable level. Students should be encouraged to abandon the response set used earlier, and to spontaneously generate their own unique responses. Each group member is then called on, in order, to rate the response given (-, interchangeable, or +).

LESSON 10

Role-Playing

3. The leader selectively reinforces and gradually shapes the responses to more accurate levels of responding. This procedure is repeated, with each group member in turn giving a statement of feeling and having the next person respond.

NOTE: Responses may also be made to prepared role-played statements on audio tape.

4. Continue until most responses are rated interchangeable or +.
5. Students should remain in groups, but divide into pairs to practice responding to a sequence of communications. Each member can take turns in responding to a continuous interaction.

LESSON 11: GAMES PEOPLE PLAY

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	4 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Divide class into groups of 7 to 11 students b. Distribute Kits and read instructions to class 	Kit containing Role-Playing Exercise
2.	35 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Group complete exercise following time limits given in their instructions 	
3.	5 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Rearrange class for discussion b. Leader leads discussion on student's experiences. 	
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
4.	5 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Divide class into three groups b. Leader should go over Handout 8:1 again, emphasizing particularly deeper levels of empathy (eg. levels 3, 3.5, 4, 4.5, and 5). 	Handout 8:1
5.	30 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Leader demonstrates procedure for making an additive response b. Group members role-play, attempting additive responses 	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 11

GAMES PEOPLE PLAY

Theory

1. Divide the class into groups of 7 to 11 students.
2. Distribute one large envelope containing complete exercise (See "Instructions for Making Role-Playing Exercise") to each group.
3. Before groups open envelopes, the leader should emphasize the following instructions:

"You will be given a role to play during this exercise. Be sure that you follow this role as closely as you can. You should also adopt the position you are given in your instructions."
4. Allow groups to begin, checking to make sure they open the correct envelope and understand the directions. Groups should complete the exercise at their own pace, although the time stated in the directions may be emphasized if some groups are particularly slow.
5. After completion of Part C, arrange the whole class for a discussion of their experiences during the exercise.

eg. a. What roles were effective in each group?
b. How did the groups decide on their leader?
c. How many persons can see more of themselves in their behavior, than the role they were supposed to be playing?
d. If you did not play the role you were given, what role did you play? Is that your role?

Role-Playing

1. Divide the class into three groups. Review Handout 8:1 (Scale 1: Empathy in Interpersonal Processes.)
2. Students should continue continuous role-plays in the groups, but should attempt to reach deeper levels of meaning (corresponding to levels 3.5 and over on the above Scale). Leader should demonstrate, following the procedure described below as an outline:

LESSON 11

GAMES PEOPLE PLAY

Role-Playing

- a. First, establish an interchangeable base. This is represented by a number of responses at an interchangeable level.
- b. Once a clear understanding of what the person is saying is established, then an additive response may be attempted. Such additive responses may begin:

"I hear you saying that you feel "

"This all adds up to the feeling that "

"I hear you saying that, but inside you are feeling"

"There seem to be two feelings happening at the same time.

On the one hand you feel . . . , and on the other you feel"

3. Continue role-plays until all students have experimented with giving and receiving additive responses.

LESSON 11

Instructions for Making Role-Playing Exercise

1. Before class, prepare two or three Role-Playing Kits. Each kit can be used with 7 to 11 students.
2. Each kit is enclosed in a large 9 X 12 inch envelope. The following instructions should be typed on the outside of this envelope:

DO NOT OPEN THIS ENVELOPE UNTIL TOLD TO BEGIN

Enclosed you will find three brown envelopes which contain directions for this group activity.

YOU SHOULD BEGIN BY OPENING THE FIRST ONE LABELED (ENVELOPE A)

You should follow the instructions given, as to when the second (B) and third (C) envelopes should be opened.

3. Directions for the exercise are contained in three smaller (5 X 9 inch) brown envelopes (Envelopes A, B and C). Directions for these envelopes should be typed on separate sheets, as shown, and placed inside the appropriate envelope.
4. Envelope A also contains specific instructions for up to 11 students. These instructions tell the student which role he is to play, and also gives him a position in respect to choosing a color. Instructions should be cut up and placed in separate letter-sized envelopes numbered from 1 to 11. These envelopes are then placed inside Envelope A, along with the Directions for Envelope A.

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LESSON 11

DIRECTIONS FOR ENVELOPE (A)

Time allowed : 15 minutes

Special instructions :

Each member is to take one of the white envelopes and follow the instructions given in it.

DO NOT LET ANYONE ELSE SEE YOUR INSTRUCTIONS !

Task : The group is to choose a color.

(After fifteen minutes go on to the next envelope)

LESSON 11

STUDENT INSTRUCTIONS

Part A

1. Information Seeker

Your role is to ask the other members of the group to say what information or facts they have which may help solve the task.

Position : for blue

2. Tension Reducer

Your role is to relieve tension by making fun and joking about what is going on.

Position : bring in the idea of a different color - orange

3. Clarifier

Your role is to try and bring together the ideas and suggestions made by other members of the group. Show how other persons suggestions may be used to solve the task.

Position : for red

4. Role : None

Position : None

(You have the special secret that the group is going to be asked to choose a leader later in the game; you are to act in such a way that they will choose you to be leader).

5. Gate-Keeper

Your role is to keep everyone talking. Ask people who have not said very much to give their opinion. Do not let one or two people do all the talking.

Position : against red

LESSON 11

STUDENT INSTRUCTIONS

Part A

6. Initiator

Your role is to suggest new ways of solving the task and then try to organize the group to follow your method.

Position : for green

7. Role : None

Position : None

(You have the special secret that the group is going to be asked to choose a leader later in the game; you are to act in such a way that they will choose you to be leader).

8. Follower

Your role is to go along with the group and support the ideas of others.

Position : against red

9. Information Giver

Your role is to give the group information and suggestions which come from your own experience and which will help the group solve the task.

Position : against blue

10. Harmonizer

Your role is to be a "referee". Try to keep everyone calm and settled. Break up arguments by telling each person they have made a good point.

Position : against green

11. Encourager

Your role is to praise and agree with the other members of the group. Be a "nice guy".

Position : against orange

LESSON 11

DIRECTIONS FOR ENVELOPE (B)

Time allowed : 10 minutes

Task : The group is to choose a leader

(After ten minutes go on to the next envelope)

LESSON 11

DIRECTIONS FOR ENVELOPE (C)

Time allowed : 10 minutes

Task : The group is to discuss what happened in Part (1)

Special Instructions : The new leader will lead this discussion

sample questions:

1. What behavior helped the group decide on a color?
2. What behavior did not help the group?
3. What roles were these people playing, or did the person not play the role he was supposed to play?
4. Who was chosen leader? What role did he play?
Do you think his role had anything to do with his being chosen leader?

LESSON 12: ONE WAY/TWO WAY COMMUNICATION

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	10 minutes	a. Arrange class for demonstration and select two boys and two girls b. Seat students as directed and read instructions. Place items on desks.	2 books 2 chalk brushes 2 plastic cups 2 IBM cards 2 blue pens 2 red pens
2.	10 minutes	a. First pair of students attempts task, with only one person allowed to talk. b. When finished, make note of errors and write down time taken	
3.	15 minutes	a. Repeat the above demonstration using the pair of students who were sent out of the room. This time both persons may talk.	
4.	15 minutes	a. Leader should lead class discussion following questions given. Anyone doubting the effectiveness of two way communication can be given the opportunity of experiencing one way communication, using the same procedure as above.	

LESSON 12: ONE WAY/TWO WAY COMMUNICATION

Trainer Information		Instructions	Materials
Step	Time		
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
5.	30 minutes	a. Groups responding to real interactions	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 12

One/~~Two~~ Way CommunicationTheory

The following materials are needed for this lesson and must be collected in advance so that the lesson can proceed smoothly:

- 2 identical books
- 2 identical chalk brushes
- 2 identical plastic cups
- 2 identical cards (eg. computer cards) - fold one of the cards in half, then fold the top half diagonally.
- 2 identical blue pens reverse the caps on 1 blue pen
- 2 identical red pens and 1 red pen so that there are 2 red and blue pens.

1. Arrange the class for a demonstration. Select 2 boys and 2 girls to take part, then send one pair out of the room.
2. Place two identical desks back-to-back and have a student sit in each so that they face away from one another. Only one of the students will be allowed to talk during this demonstration, therefore have the students decide which one of them will do the talking. Place the following items on the desks in such a manner that the other student does not see the items on the opposite desk:

Desk A

- 1 book
- 1 chalk brush
- 1 plastic cup
- 1 flat card
- 2 red and blue pens

Desk B

- 1 book
- 1 chalk brush
- 1 plastic cup
- 1 folded card
- 1 red pen
- 1 blue pen

3. Instructions to students in the demonstration:

"You have each been given a number of similar items. You are to arrange these items on your desks so that when you have finished each desk will look exactly the same to the students observing. Remember, you cannot look at the other person's desk and only one of you can speak."

4. Have one of the class members time this demonstration. When the students have finished, before letting them turn around to see, ask each of them whether they feel they have been successful in arranging the items so that the two desks look the same to the observers. Make a note of the number of errors.

LESSON 12

One/Two Way Communication

Theory

5. Take all the items off the desks. Bring the other two students into the room and sit them down in the desks as before. Place the items back on the desks as set out in Step 2, above.

6. Instructions to students in this demonstration:

"You have each been given a number of similar items. You are to arrange these items on your desks so that when you have finished each desk will look exactly the same to the students observing. Remember, you cannot look at the other persons desk. You can only communicate by talking."

7. Again have someone time the demonstration. Also, ask the participants whether they feel they have been successful, before they turn around to see.

8. Discussion:

- a. Which takes longer - one way or two way communication?
- b. Which leads to the best understanding?
- c. What made the two way communication so difficult?
- d. Do you feel you could have done better?
- e. Why do you think it would be easier for you when it appeared difficult for those taking part?
- f. How did each of the participants feel about their attempt?
- g. Which method resulted in the greater satisfaction? In what way?

Role-Playing

1. Divide the class into three groups.
2. Each group member is now asked to use his new skills in a live and thoroughly real interaction. Each group member in turn is asked to explore himself and his own feelings in the presense of the group, as various group members respond to him in a continuous interaction. It is the leader's role to create and nurture an atmosphere of openness, sincerity and mutual concern during this interaction.
3. Student objections that such practice is "phoney" should be countered by the challenge to make the interaction real. Full training benefits, at deeper levels of empathic communication, accrue only when students can be brought to share their own personal experiences.

LESSON 13: NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Theory</u>			
1.	15 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Arrange demonstration and read out instructions b. Demonstration followed by discussion 	Word cards
2.	20 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Arrange for demonstration and instruct participants b. Skits are presented followed by discussion 	
3.	20 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Divide the class into groups of five and distribute envelopes to each group. Read instructions. b. Groups do exercise and leaders follows with discussion of feelings generated by the non-verbal exercise. 	Handout 13:1 Envelopes with pieces for squares
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
4.	25 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Divide the class into three groups b. Leader leads group discussion aimed at helping students continue their level of communicated empathy outside the group. 	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 13

Non-Verbal Communication

Theory

Exercise A

1. Form a group of five students in the center of the room so that the rest of the class can see. (Also, the entire class can be divided into groups of five so that everyone takes part).
2. Give each person one of the following words to speak. Hand out cards with words on, in a random order:

Card 1 - I

Card 2 - AM

Card 3 - ABLE

Card 4 - TO

Card 5 - SEE
3. Each person can only speak the word he has been assigned. Nothing else may be spoken.
4. Participants are to keep saying their word, without saying anything else to each other, until a meaning evolves which satisfies the group.
5. The rest of the class should observe this interaction, and write down all non-verbal cues they see being used.
6. Leader should lead the class discussion:
 - a. What non-verbal cues were observed?
 - b. How did the group arrive at a meaning?
 - c. How do each of the participants feel about others in the group?
 - d. How do participants feel about themselves and their actions?
 - e. Can you think of ways of making yourself better understood?

Exercise B

7. Arrange the class for a demonstration. Select four volunteers (2 boys and 2 girls) for a short skit.
8. Do not let the rest of the class hear the following instructions, which are given to the participants only:

LESSON 13

Exercise B

1st. pair: You are to enact the following situation, using all the actions you wish. However, the only words you may speak throughout the entire skit are:
"Onions for breakfast."

Situation A - an argument between a taxi driver and a policeman at the scene of a minor accident.

2nd pair: You are to enact the following situation, using all the actions you wish. However, the only words you may speak throughout the entire skit are:
"Never on Sunday"

Situation B - a man trying to pick-up a girl.

9. The rest of the class should observe each skit, writing down as many non-verbal cues as possible.
10. Ask various members of the class to tell what was happening in each skit.
11. Leader should lead class discussion:
 - a. What non-verbal cues were observed?
 - b. Do actions sometimes speak louder than words?

Exercise C

12. Divide the class into groups of five and seat each group at a table equipped with a set of envelopes and an instruction sheet (Handout 13:1). The envelopes are to be opened only on signal. (See "Instructions for Making Broken Squares")
13. Read out the instructions carefully before beginning.
14. Ask each student to try and pay attention to what he is thinking and feeling while the exercise is going on.
15. When all or most of the groups have finished, call time and discuss the experience. Discussion should focus on feelings and assumptions derived from these feelings.
 - eg. a. How did you feel when you couldn't solve the puzzle; or when you got your finished?
 - b. How did you feel about others in the group?
 - the person who couldn't see he had the solution to your square
 - the person who finished and sat back.
 - c. How does communication go on when no one speaks?

LESSON 13

Role-Playing

16. Divide the class into three groups. (Depending on the number of trainers available, this session may be undertaken with the class as whole).
17. Format should be in terms of a group discussion, with the aim of helping students maintain and enhance their newly acquired skills after the conclusion of training.
In the group:
 - a. empathic responses have been immediately and consistently reinforced.
 - b. real and meaningful interactions have been developed and now tend to unfold with ease.
 - c. each student's level of empathy is reciprocated by the level of empathy of the other group members.

None of the above conditions is likely to exist outside the training group. In fact:

 - a. research suggests that society in general cannot offer empathic communication to its members (Carkhuff, 1969)
 - b. Social units sometimes react destructively to the improved functioning of one of its members (Boszormenyi-Nagy and Framo, 1965).
 - c. many social interactions are circular and "fruitless" games, with players who resist real and intimate contacts (Berne, 1964)
18. Discussion should emphasize the above information, and how each student can deal with it.
eg.
 - a. What are the subtle supportive effects of the group on each of its members?
 - b. What effect may the absense of this support have on the individual students?
 - c. What are some ways for individual students to cope with empathic communication?

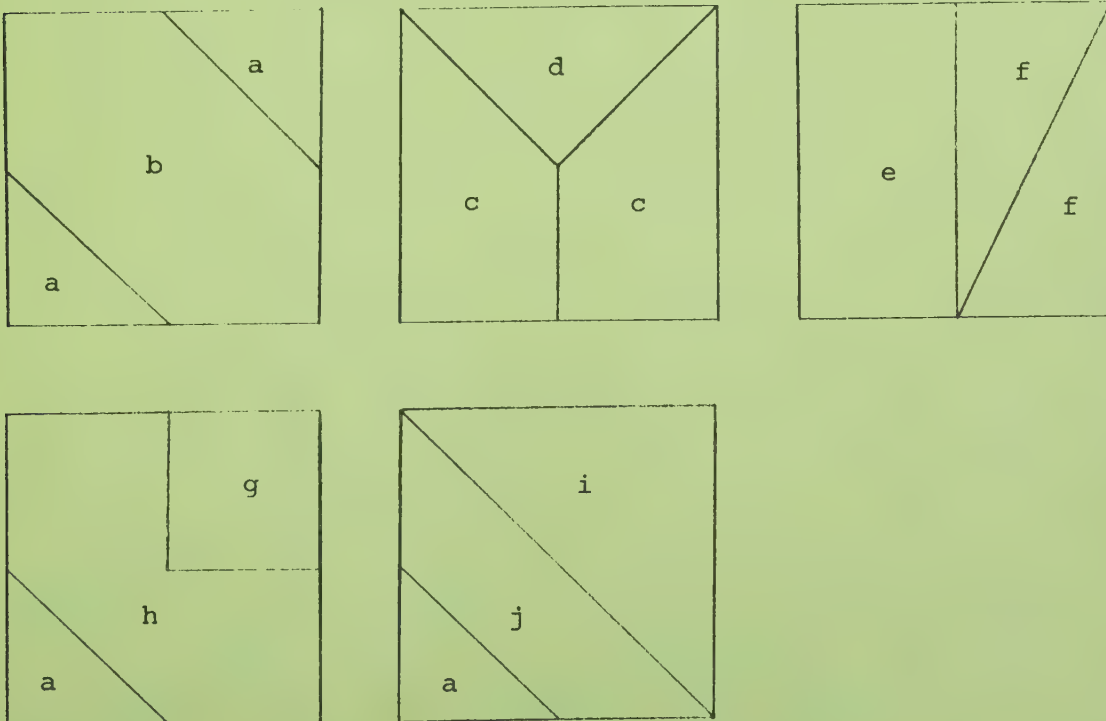
LESSON 13

Instructions for Making Broken Squares

1. Before class, prepare a set of squares for each five students. A set consists of five envelopes containing pieces of cardboard cut into patterns that will form five 6 inch by 6 inch squares. Several combinations will form one or two squares, but only one combination will form five 6 inch by 6 inch squares.
2. Cut each square into parts as shown in the diagram and lightly pencil the letters on each piece.
3. Take five envelopes and mark them 1 through 5.
4. Distribute the pieces as follows:

Envelope 1 - i, h, e
 2 - a, a, a, c
 3 - a, c
 4 - d, f, j
 5 - g, b f

5. Erase the small letters from the pieces and write the envelope numbers on them instead, so that pieces can be easily returned for use at another time.



LESSON 14: DECISION BY CONSENSUS

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
<u>Role-Playing</u>			
1.	10 minutes	a. Distribute Handout 14:1 and have class rank items	Handout 14:1
2.	30 minutes	a. Divide the class into groups of five or six, and distribute Handout 14:2 b. Groups rank items by consensus	Handout 14:2
3.	25 minutes	a. Introduce special Instructions b. Have group decide by consensus	
4.	10 minutes	a. Leader leads discussion	
5.	5 minutes	a. Read "Assignment" for next lesson	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 14

Decision by Consensus

Role-Playing

1. Distribute Handout 14:1 (Lost on the Moon Exercise) to each person in the class and have them complete the ranking according to the directions given.
2. Divide the class into groups of five or six. Distribute Handout 14:2 to all groups. Using group consensus, the items are ranked again. These rankings should be recorded on the "Group Summary Sheet" and placed in the column listed "Group Predictions."
3. Once groups have finished ranking the fifteen items, read the following special instructions:

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS

You have now reached your destination. Unfortunately you were only able to bring with you the ten most important items on your list. The moon-ship which was to bring you back to earth crashed while attempting to land. However, there is still hope. Tomorrow, a smaller Russian spaceship will come and bring two of you back to earth, providing your oxygen lasts that long. There is no hope for the rest of the crew. You should now decide which of you will be rescued.

4. Leader should lead a class discussion:
 - a. What items were important to each group?
 - b. Were the groups decisions often better than those of individuals?
 - c. On what basis did the group decide who would be rescued?
 - d. How did the survivors feel?
 - e. How did the others feel?

NOTE: This exercise is very popular and many students may have encountered various parts of it before. However, the leader can easily make up his own version.

- eg.
- a. Have students rank a list of occupations individually and in groups.
 - b. Give each member of the group one of the occupations to play.
 - c. Now have them set up a colony on Mars and have them re-rank occupations in terms of the new setting; or pose the following situation:

Atomic war has broken out. Your group comes upon a bomb shelter,

LESSON 14

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS

except it will only hold half of you; any more than that number inside and no one will survive. According to the role you are playing, decide which of you should go into the bomb shelter.

5. Assignment for LESSON 15

Each student is to bring a personal object, something that is particularly important to him, to the next class. This "special thing" or object should be something you like a lot. This could be a piece of clothing, jewelry, knickknack. or any other small object. You should bring these objects to class in a bag or box, so that no one else will see them. Also, do not tell anyone in class what you have brought.

LESSON 15: SOCIAL PERCEPTION

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
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Role-Playing

- | | | | |
|----|---------------|---|--|
| 1. | 40-55 minutes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Divide the class into three groups b. Groups discuss each object in turn | |
| 2. | 15 minutes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Individuals may identify objects if they wish b. Leader encourages discussion of how each person felt during the exercise | |
| 3. | 10-25 minutes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Group discussion of how students feel about themselves, others and the program. | |

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 15

Social Perception

Give the following assignment for this exercise one class period ahead of time:

Assignment:

Each student is to bring to class a personal object, something that is particularly important to him. This "special thing" or object should be something he has great liking for; this could be a piece of clothing, jewelry, knickknack, or any other small object. Students should bring these objects to class in a bag or a box, so that no one else will know which object belongs to whom.

Role-Playing

1. Divide the class into three groups. Members of each group should place the bags and boxes containing their objects in the center of the group. (The exercise may also be done with the class as a whole).
2. Take one of the objects and have the group discuss what kind of a person the object might belong to. What might the person who brought this object be like? NOTE: This should not be a guessing game concerning which object belongs to whom.
3. Take the other objects one by one and discuss, as above, until all the objects have been unveiled. Individuals should not say which item is theirs until all objects have been unveiled. Also no one needs to identify their item if they wish it to remain secret.
4. Discussion:
 - a. How did you feel when your object was being discussed?
 - b. Did the group understand the importance of the object?
 - c. Did your object communicate what you wanted it to?
 - d. Now that you have experienced this discussion, do you wish you had brought something else instead?
 - e. Would the group have understood you better if you had brought something else?
5. Arrange the class for a discussion of how students feel about themselves, and their understanding of others, at this point.
 - eg. 1. Do you feel any differently about talking to other students, particularly those you do not know?
 2. What skills do you feel helped you the most?
 3. How did you feel about the feedback you received?

LESSON 15

4. Did you find out anything about the intentions of other students?
5. Do you see other student's intentions differently than you did before the program?

LESSON 16: INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

Trainer Information

Step	Time	Instructions	Materials
1.	35 minutes	a. Distribute instructions for interviews b. Conduct the first set of interviews	Handout 16:1 Handout 16:2
2.	30 minutes	a. Have students exchange instructions b. Conduct the second set of interviews	
3.	15 minutes	a. Discussion of how students feel.	

Total Time - 80 minutes

LESSON 16

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

1. Divide the class in half. Give one half Handout 16:1 (Interviewers Instructions) and the other half Handout 16:2 (Student Instructions)

2. Have one "interviewer" and one "student" meet together for 20-25 minutes, during which time they are to follow the instructions they have been given.

NOTE: These interviews are greatly enhanced when each pair can be alone, in a booth, behind a screen or in a separate room. In fact, interviews are not likely to succeed if everyone remains in one room, since participants become uncomfortable about others watching.

3. After the first set of interviews, have students exchange instruction sheets and enter into another 20-25 minute interview with a new partner.

4. Discussion should focus on how each person felt, both as an "interviewer" and as a "student".

- eg. a. Did your interviewer try to understand you rather than just give his own thought and feelings?
- b. Did the experience seem real to you?
- c. Could you talk to that person again, say in the cafeteria?
- d. Could you talk to a stranger in the cafeteria, in the same manner you have just experienced?
- e. When you were the interviewer, was it very easy to listen and try to understand the other person?
- f. What have you learned about your interactions with other students?

5. EVALUATION: The above interviews may also be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the program, by assessing the extent to which the newly learned behaviors have been incorporated into the repertoire of the participants.

Procedure:

- a. Have class participants be an "interviewer" in all interviews (Group 1 interviewers)
- b. Obtain another group of "interviewers" from another class which have not participated in the present program (Group 2 interviewers).
- c. "Students" for the interviews may be taken from any other class, at random.

LESSON 16

5. EVALUATION:

- d. Each "student" is interviewed by a "Group 2 interviewer", and then in a successive interview by a "Group 1 interviewer". After these two interviews each student is asked to select "which of the two persons who interviewed you, would you go back and talk to again. You must choose only one of them."
- e. Evaluation can be made on the basis of the number from each group, selected by the "students".

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LESSON 1
HANDOUT 1:1

OBJECTIVES

This program presents a series of exercises designed to improve interpersonal communication. You may already be familiar with many of the skills introduced in the succeeding lessons, for we all use such skills to some degree when we communicate with others.

Skills in Communicating

In attempting to improve communication you will receive more than just a knowledge of the various communication skills. Each exercise provides opportunities to practice the described behaviors in role-playing situations with other members of your group. In addition, you will receive feedback from your partners on the ways you use these behaviors. The emphasis is on learning to do, in addition to becoming more clear about what you know.

Reducing Distrust in Interpersonal Relationships

When entering into an interpersonal relationship, most people have goals they wish to accomplish in that relationship (i.e., asking a girl to go to a show; or, thanking someone for a favor). These intentions may be communicated verbally, nonverbally or in both ways.

Since your intentions are known only to you, the only way another person can determine your intentions is through your words and behavior. When there is a consistency between the words and the behavior mutual trust develops. Conversely, inconsistency between words and behavior often results in suspicion and distrust.

The important question to consider is whether you are aware of the inconsistencies in your own communications. Also, can you recognize inconsistencies in another person's communication which may affect his relationship with you?

As a result, you will participate in a number of exercises designed to help you become more aware of your own feelings and intentions. Special emphasis will be placed upon how you express yourself in both words and actions.

Objectives of the Program

In summary, this program provides four kinds of opportunity:

1. to discover and understand skills in communicating

LESSON I
HANDOUT 1:1

2. to practice interpersonal communication skills
3. to participate with others in learning how to recognize and use skills of communicating, and to receive feedback from your partners on how you use these skills
4. to participate in exercises which allow **you** to discover inconsistencies in your own communications, and to become aware of inconsistencies in receiving communications from other persons.

LESSON I
HANDOUT 1:2

THE ARAB TRADER

Discussion:

Each group should split and join with members of another group (preferably a group with a different answer) to make up new groups of five. Individual participation in these groups should focus on the following questions:

1. Did you feel that your representative could have pushed your position harder? What would you have done?
2. Could a representative supporting a wrong answer still sway others to his position by using his ability to communicate?
3. How did you feel when it appeared that your answer was wrong (or right)?
4. How did you feel towards people in groups having the wrong (or right) answer?
5. Do small disagreements, like you just experienced, lead to distrust of the other person? Do you still distrust members of your present group who had a different answer from you? If not, how did your feelings change?

LESSON 2
HANDOUT 2:1

BUILDING TRUST

During this exercise, each group will be asked to make 10 decisions, one for each round. In making these decisions try to come to unanimous agreement within your group. Try to avoid techniques such as voting, averaging or trading in making decisions.

Winnings for each round are calculated according to the decisions made by all four groups. Study the scoring formula carefully before making your first decision.

Instructions

1. The object of this exercise is to score as many points as possible.
2. After a discussion period, each group will decide on either X or Y. Mark your decision on the piece of paper provided, along with your group number. There will only be one decision taken from each group per round.
3. Between round 3 and 4 you will be asked to select a representative from your group. These representatives will meet in the center of the room, and should talk loud enough for everyone to hear. No one else may speak while negotiations are under way. These negotiations will occur again before rounds 5, 6, 8, and 9. The goal of the negotiation period is to reach agreement between groups.
4. Note: winnings are doubled for round 5, tripled for round 8, and multiplied by ten for round 10.

BUILDING TRUST

Scoring:

XXXX	+	100	for each group
XXXY	+	300	for the group selecting Y
	-	100	for the group selecting X
XXYY	+	200	for the group selecting Y
	-	200	for the group selecting X
XYYY	+	100	for the group selecting Y
	-	300	for the group selecting X
YYYY	+	100	for each group

Score Sheet:

[illegible]

LESSON 3
HANDOUT 3:1

SUMMARY OF BASIC COMMUNICATION SKILLS
FOR IMPROVING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Objectives: You bridge the interpersonal gap as you increase the understanding you and another share. A shared understanding means that each of you has accurate information about the other's (a) ideas and suggestions, and (b) feelings - his intentions, emotional responses, assumptions.

The four communication skills summarized here can be helpful . . .

- . . . if you want to encourage a spirit of joint inquiry ("Let us try to understand how each of us views this") rather than competing, blaming and fault-finding ("Your're wrong: I'm right").
- . . . if you want to increase the amount of information held in common.
- . . . if you want to reduce the depreciation and hostility transmitted.
- . . . if you want to lessen the likelihood of injury and hurt feelings.

1. Reception Skills: (acknowledging by checking) These responses (a) let the speaker know you have heard him (acknowledging) and (b) that you wish to compare your understanding against his for accuracy (checking).

- A. Paraphrase: (Concern with ideas and suggestions) Letting the other know what meaning his statements evoke in you.

"Do you mean ... (statement)...?"

"Is this ... (statement) ... an accurate understanding of your idea?"

"Would this be an example of what you mean? Giving a specific example)"

- B. Perception Check: (Concern with the person, his feelings) Describing what you perceive the other feels -- tentatively and without evaluating him.

"I get the impression you'd rather not talk about this. Is that so?"

"You were disappointed that they did not ask you?"

"You look like you felt hurt by my comment. Did you?"

2. Transmission Skills: These responses aim at transmitting information free of attack, accusation, depreciation, and other relation-straining attributes.

LESSON 3
HANDOUT 3:1

SUMMARY OF BASIC COMMUNICATION SKILLS
FOR IMPROVING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

- A. Behavior Description: Describing specific, observable actions of others rather than stating inferences, accusations, or generalizations about their motives, attitudes or personality traits.

"You bumped my cup." rather than "You never watch where you're going."

"Jim and Bill have done most of the talking and the rest of us have said very little," rather than "Jim and Bill just have to hog the spotlight."

- B. Description of Feelings: Identifying your feelings by (1) name, (2) simile, (3) action urge and conveying it as information about your inner state and not as an accusation or coercive demand against the other.

"I felt hurt when you ignored my comment," rather than "You're rude!"

"I feel hurt and embarrassed," rather than "You just put me down!"

"I'm disappointed that you forgot," rather than "You don't care about me!"

"I'm too angry to listen to any more now," rather than "Get the Hell out!"

LESSON 3
HANDOUT 3:2

PARAPHRASE

A Basic Communication Skill
for Improving Interpersonal Relationships

The problem: Tell somebody your phone number and he will usually repeat it to make sure he heard it correctly. However, if you make a complicated statement most people will express agreement or disagreement without trying to insure that they are responding to what you intended. Most people seem to assume that what they understand from a statement is what the other intended.

How do you check to make sure that you understand another person's ideas, information, or suggestions as he intended them? How do you know that his remark means the same to you as it does to him?

Of course, you can get the other person to clarify his remark by asking, "What do you mean?" or "Tell me more." or by saying "I don't understand." However, after he has elaborated you still face the same question. "Am I understanding his idea as he intended it to be understood?" Your feeling of certainty is no evidence that you do in fact understand. (See "On Misunderstanding".)

The skill: If you state in your own way what his remark conveys to you, the other can begin to determine whether his message is coming through as he intended. Then, if he thinks you misunderstand, he can speak directly to the specific misunderstanding you have revealed. I will use the term "paraphrase" for any means of showing the other person what his idea or suggestion means to you.

Paraphrasing, then, is any way of revealing your understanding of the other person's comment in order to test your understanding.

An additional benefit of paraphrasing is that it lets the other know that you are interested in him. It is evidence that you do want to understand what he means.

If you can satisfy the other that you really do understand his point, he will probably be more willing to attempt to understand your views.

Paraphrasing, thus, is crucial in attempting to bridge the interpersonal gap. (1) It increases the accuracy of communication, and thus the degree of mutual or shared understanding. (2) The act of paraphrasing itself conveys feeling - your interest in the other, your concern to see how he views things.

LESSON 3
HANDOUT 3:2PARAPHRASEA Basic Communication Skill
for improving Interpersonal Relationships

Learning to paraphrase: People sometimes think of paraphrasing as merely putting the other person's ideas in another way. They try to say the same thing with different words. Such word-swapping may merely result in the illusion of mutual understanding as in the following example.

Sarah: Jim should never have become a teacher.
Fred: You mean teaching isn't the right job for him?
Sarah: Exactly! Teaching is not the right job for Jim.

Instead of trying to reword Sarah's statement Fred might have asked himself, "What does Sarah's statement mean to me?" In that case the interchange might have sounded like this.

Sarah: Jim should never have become a teacher.
Fred: You mean he is too harsh on the children? Maybe even cruel?
Sarah: Oh, no. I meant that he has such expensive tastes that he can't ever earn enough as a teacher.
Fred: Oh, I see. You think he should have gone into a field that would have insured him a higher standard of living.
Sarah: Exactly! Teaching is not the right job for Jim.

Effective paraphrasing is not a trick or a verbal gimmick. It comes from an attitude, a desire to know what the other means. And to satisfy this desire you reveal the meaning his comment had for you so that the other can check whether it matches the meaning he intended to convey.

If the other's statement was general, it may convey something specific to you.

Larry: I think this is a very poor textbook.
You: Poor? You mean it has too many inaccuracies?
Larry: No, the text is accurate, but the book comes apart too easily.

Possibly the other's comments suggests an example to you.

LESSON 3
HANDOUT 3:2

PARAPHRASE

A Basic Communication Skill
for improving Interpersonal Relationships

- Laura: This text has too many omissions; we shouldn't adopt it.
- You: Do you mean, for example, that it contains nothing about the Negro's role in the development of America?
- Laura: Yes, that's one example. It also lacks any discussion of the development of the arts in America.

If the speaker's comment was very specific, it may convey a more general idea to you.

- Ralph: Do you have 25 pencils I can borrow for my class?
- You: Do you just want something for them to write with?
I have about 15 ball-point pens and 10 or 11 pencils.
- Ralph: Great. Anything that will write will do.

Sometimes the other's idea will suggest its inverse or opposite to you.

- Stanley: I think the Teacher's Union acts so irresponsibly because the Administration has ignored them so long.
- You: Do you mean that the T.U. would be less militant now if the Administration had consulted with them in the past?
- Stanley: Certainly. I think the T.U. is being forced to more and more desperate measures.

To develop your skill in understanding others, try different ways of (1) conveying your interest in understanding what they mean, (2) revealing what the other's statements mean to you. Find out what kinds of responses are helpful ways of paraphrasing for you.

The next time someone is angry with you or is criticizing you, try to paraphrase until you can demonstrate that you understand what he is trying to convey as he intends it. What effect does this have on your feelings and on his?

LESSON 3
HANDOUT 3:3

WHEN TO USE A SKILL LIKE PARAPHRASING

Paraphrasing is a communication skill designed to help you understand others. This is one of four communication skills you will be introduced to during this series. The other three skills are behavior description, description of feeling and perception checking. The four skills are not new or unique and almost everyone uses the skills at different times. These skills can be learned, practiced, and then used in whatever situations you need them to help you understand the communication between you and others.

Of course, communication skills can be overdone and used when it's not necessary. They are best used when you want to make sure that you and someone else clearly understand what is being said.

LESSON 4
HANDOUT 4:1

HOT-AIR BALLOONS

Questions:	True	False
1. The Montgolfier brothers were the first to fly in a balloon	T	F
2. Early balloons often caught fire	T	F
3. Back in 1783, in Paris, a duck, a rooster and a woolly sheep were lost in a frail, linen and paper balloon	T	F
4. Hydrogen was used to heat the air bacause it was safer than straw	T	F
5. In 1940, Ed Yost of Sioux Falls, South Dakota, flew a 60 foot nylon balloon	T	F
6. Yost took the balloon up to a height of 80 feet for a period of 30 minutes	T	F
7. The air inside the balloon must be at least 100 degrees to provide lifting force	T	F
8. The warmest air is at the top of the balloon	T	F
9. A red line on the balloon is damaged if the temperature exceeds 275 degrees	T	F
10. The temperature inside the gondola is given by a pyrometer	T	F

LESSON 4
HANDOUT 4:2

GETTING EVEN

On June 23, Jim Anderson was waiting for the school bus for the last time. He had just finished grade 12. Standing there, he noticed Mr. Jenkins new Pontiac parked behind the gym. Mr. Jenkins, who taught Math, was a real slave-driver and always gave stacks of homework. Jim thought back to all the times he had been reamed-out by Mr. Jenkins for not having his homework done. Boy, it always felt like old Jenkins had wiped the floor with you before he was satisfied. Jim thought, now was his chance to get even. Quickly, he ran over to the car and twisted the valve out of the back tire. The air rushed out with a hiss as the car sank slowly to the ground. As Jim stood up his eyes met those of the principal who was just climbing out of his car, three spaces over.

LESSON 5
HANDOUT 5:1

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION

A Basic Communication Skill for Improving
Interpersonal Relationships

The problem: If you and another person are to improve the way you get along together, you must be able to convey what each does that affects the other. This is not easy. Most of us do not describe behavior clearly enough for others to know what actions we have in mind. Instead, we usually state what we infer about his motivations, attitudes and personality traits; often we are not even aware we are inferring rather than describing. Because we are so used to inferring we may not even know what the other did that led us to our inferences.

The skill of behavior description, then, depends upon accurate observation which, in turn, depends upon being aware of when you are describing and of when you are inferring.

The skill: A statement must pass two tests to be a behavior description.

1. A behavior description reports specific, observable actions rather than inferences or generalization about the person's motives, feelings, attitudes or personality traits. It states what was observed. It does not infer about why.

Behavior Descriptions

Inferences

Fran walked out of the meeting
30 minutes before it was
finished.

Fran was annoyed.
Fran had an appointment
elsewhere.

Bob's eyes filled with tears.

Bob had a cold.
Bob felt sorry for himself.

Becky did not say anything when
Bill asked her a question.

Becky did not hear Bill.
Becky resented Bill's
question.
Becky was embarrassed.

2. A behavior description is non-evaluative: it does not say or imply what happened was good or bad, right or wrong. Evaluative statements (such as name-calling, accusations, judgements) usually express what the speaker is feeling and convey little about what behavior is observed.

LESSON 5
HANDOUT 5:1

<u>Behavior Descriptions</u>	<u>Evaluative Statements</u>
Jim talked more than others on this topic. Several times he cut others off before they finished.	Jim is rude. Jim wants to hog the center of attention.
"Bob, you've taken the opposite of most statements Harry has made today."	"Bob, you're just trying to show Harry up." Bob, you're being stubborn."
Fran walked out of the meeting 30 minutes before it was finished	Fran is irresponsible. Fran doesn't care about others.
"Sam you cut in before I finished".	"Sam, you deliberately didn't let me finish."

The word "deliberately" implies that Sam knowingly and intentionally cut you off. All anybody can observe is that he did cut in before you had finished.

As an example of the difference a behavior description may make, let's suppose you tell me I am rude (a generalized trait) or that I don't care about your feelings (an inference about my motivation). Because I am not trying to be rude and because I feel I do care about your feelings, I don't know what the basis is for your negative evaluation of me. We certainly have not moved closer to a shared understanding. However, if you point out that several times in the past few minutes I have interrupted you and have overridden you before you could finish what you were saying, I get a clearer picture of what actions of mine were affecting you.

Several members of his group have told Ben that he was too arrogant. Ben was confused and puzzled by this judgement. He was confused because he didn't know what to do about it; he didn't know what it referred to. He was puzzled because he didn't feel arrogant or scornful of the others. In fact, he admitted he really felt nervous and unsure of himself. Finally, Joe said that Ben often laughed explosively after Ben made a comment that seemed to have no humorous aspects. Others immediately agreed this was the behavior that led them to perceive Ben as looking down on them and, therefore, arrogant. Ben said he had not been aware of this.

LESSON 5
HANDOUT 5:1

The pattern, thus, was as follows. When he made a statement of which he was somewhat unsure, Ben felt insecure. ...Ben's feelings of insecurity expressed themselves in an explosive laugh after he made the statement. ...the other person perceived Ben as laughing at him. ...the other person felt put down and humiliated. ...the other's feeling of humiliation was expressed in the accusation that Ben was arrogant. Note that Ben had no awareness of his own behavior (the laugh) which was being misread until Joe accurately described what Ben was doing. Ben could then see that this laugh was a way of attempting to cope with his own feelings of insecurity.

To develop skill in describing behavior you must sharpen your observation of what actually did occur. You must force your self to pay attention to what is observable and to hold inferences in abeyance. As you practice this you may find that many of your conclusions about others are based less on observable evidence than on your own feelings of affection, insecurity, irritation, jealousy, or fear. For example, accusations that attribute undesirable motives to another are usually expressions of the speaker's negative feelings toward the other.

John L. Wallen
Rev. 1/1970

LESSON 6
HANDOUT 6:1

Exercise A

Situation:

1. How do you feel?

I feel . . .

What would you do?

When I feel this way I . . .

2. How do you feel?

I feel . . .

What would you do?

When I feel this way I . . .

3. How do you feel?

I feel . . .

What would you do?

When I feel this way I . . .

LESSON 6
HANDOUT 6:2

Description of Feelings

The skill: Although we usually try to describe our ideas clearly and accurately, we often do not try to describe our feelings clearly. Feelings get expressed in many different ways, but we do not usually attempt to identify the feeling itself.

One way to describe a feeling is to identify or name it. "I feel angry." "I feel embarrassed." "I feel comfortable with you." However, we do not have enough names or labels to encompass the broad range of human emotions, and so we invent other ways to describe our feelings, such as the use of similes. "I feel like a tiny frog in a huge pond." A girl, whose friendly overture had just been rebuffed, said, "I feel like I have just had an arm amputated."

A third way to describe a feeling is to report what kind of action the feeling urges you to do. "I feel like hugging and hugging you." "I'd like to slap you." "I wish I could walk off and leave you."

In addition, many figures of speech serve as descriptions of feeling. "I just swallowed a bushel of spring sunshine."

Describing your own feelings; You try to make clear what feelings you are experiencing by identifying them. The statement must (1) refer to "I", "me", or "my", and (2) specify some kind of feeling by name, simile, action urge, or other figure of speech.

The following examples show the relation between two kinds of expressions of feeling, (1) those that describe what the speaker is feeling, and (2) those that do not. Notice that expressions of feeling which describe the speaker's emotional state are more precise, less capable of misinterpretation, and, thus, convey more accurately what feelings are affecting the speaker.

Expressing feeling by describing
your emotional state

"I feel embarrassed."
"I feel pleased."
"I feel annoyed."

"I feel angry!"
"I'm worried about this."
"I feel hurt by what you said."

Expressing feeling without
describing your emotional state

Blushing and saying nothing.

suddenly becoming silent
in the midst of a conver-
sation.

LESSON 6
HANDOUT 6:2

Description of Feelings

Expressing feeling by describing
your emotional state

"I enjoy her sense of humor."
"I respect her abilities and
competence."
"I love her but I feel I
shouldn't say so."

"I hurt too much to hear any more."
"I feel angry at myself."
"I'm angry with you."

Expressing feeling without
describing your emotional state

"She's a wonderful person."

"Shut up! ! !

Because emotional states express themselves simultaneously in words, in actions, and in physiological changes, a person may convey contradictory messages about what he is feeling. For example, his actions (a smile or laugh) may contradict his words (that he is angry). The clearest emotional communication occurs when the speaker's description of what he is feeling matches and, thus, amplifies what is being conveyed by his actions and other nonverbal expressions of feeling.

The aim in describing your own feelings is to start a dialogue that will improve your relationship with the other. After all, others need to know how you feel if they are to take your feelings into account. Negative feelings are indicator signals that something may be going wrong in a relationship with another person. To ignore negative feelings is like ignoring a warning light that indicates that an electrical circuit is overloaded. Negative feelings are a signal that the two of you need to check for misunderstanding and faulty communication.

After discussing how each of you sees the situation or your relationship, you may discover that your feelings resulted from false perceptions of the situation and of his motives. In this case, your feelings would probably change. However, the other may discover that his actions are arousing feelings in you that he wasn't aware of -- feelings that others beside you might experience in response to his behavior - and he may change.

In short, describing your feelings should not be an effort to coerce the other into changing so that you won't feel as you do. Rather you report your inner state as just one more piece of information that is necessary if the two of you are to understand and improve your relationship.

LESSON 6
HANDOUT 6:2

Description of Feelings

Perception check: You describe what you perceive to be the other's inner state in order to check whether you do understand what he feels. That is, you test to see whether you have decoded his expressions of feeling accurately. You transform his expressions of feeling into a tentative description of his feeling. A good perception check conveys this message, "I want to understand your feelings - is this (making a description of his feelings) the way you feel?"

Examples:

"I get the impression you are angry with me. Are you?"
(NOT: "Why are you so angry with me?" This is mind reading, not perception checking.)

"Am I right that you feel disappointed that nobody commented on your suggestion?"

"I'm not sure whether your expression means that my comment hurt your feelings, irritated you, or confused you."

Note that a perception check (1) describes the other's feelings, and (2) does not express disapproval or approval. It merely conveys, "This is how I understand your feelings. Am I accurate?"

John L. Wallen

LESSON 7
HANDOUT 7:1

HOW DO YOU EXPRESS YOUR FEELINGS?

Below are some feelings you may have experienced. For each of these you are to report two different ways that you express such feelings:

- a. indicate how you would express your feelings in words (what would you probably say)
- b. report how you would express your feelings without using words (what would you probably do)

- 1. When you feel annoyed with another person, but do not want to say so openly, how does your feeling usually express itself?

In words?

Without words?

- 2. Another person says or does something that deeply hurts your feelings, how does your feeling usually express itself?

In words?

Without words?

- 3. Another person asks you to do something that you are afraid you cannot do very well. However, you do not want him to know that you are afraid to do it. How do your feelings usually express themselves?

In words?

Without words?

- 4. When you feel you really like someone and at the same time you are not sure that they feel the same toward you, how does your feeling usually express itself?

In words?

Without words?

LESSON 7
HANDOUT 7:1

HOW DO YOU EXPRESS YOUR FEELINGS?

5. When you receive praise for something someone else did but you are afraid to bring it up how do your feelings usually express themselves?

In words?

Without words?

LESSON 7
HANDOUT 7:2

COMMUNICATION OF FEELINGS BY WORDS

Communication by words

This exercise is designed to help you learn as you go through it. It is not a test. For this reason DO NOT FILL OUT ALL ITEMS BEFORE DISCUSSING THEM. Do one item at a time as the following steps indicate.

- A. READ the introductory paragraphs to the exercise to yourself.
- B. FILL IN your responses to ITEM 1.
- C. COMPARE your responses to ITEM 1 with those of the other members of your trio. If you did not all answer alike, what are the reasons for the different responses?
- D. One member of your trio should now read aloud the paragraph below which discusses the responses to item 1. Discuss this until you all believe you understand the point being made.
- E. Repeat steps B, C, and D for item 2. Then continue this process for each item in turn until you have completed all items.

Exercise

Put a D before each sentence below that conveys feeling by describing the speaker's emotional state.

Put an N before each sentence that conveys feeling but does not describe or identify the speaker's emotional state.

- 1. () a. I feel discouraged because of some things that happened today.
() b. This has been an upsetting day.
- 2. () a. I feel inadequate when teaching that particular subject.
() b. I am inadequate in teaching that particular subject.
- 3. () a. I feel comfortable and free to be myself when I'm around you.
() b. We all feel you're a wonderful person.
() c. Everybody likes you.
- 4. () a. If things don't improve around here, I'll look for a new job.
() b. Did you ever hear of such a lousy outfit as this?
() c. I'm afraid to admit that I need help with my work.

LESSON 7
HANDOUT 7:2

COMMUNICATION OF FEELINGS BY WORDS

Excercise

5. () a. I am a failure; I'll never amount to anything.
 () b. That teacher is awful. He didn't teach me anything.
 () c. I'm depressed and discouraged because I did so poorly on that test.

Discussion of Responses

Be sure to look up the correct item number. The paragraphs have been scrambled so you won't accidentally look at the responses for the next item to be worked on.

Item 1: Expression a ... D. Describes the speaker as feeling discouraged

Expression b ... N. Conveys negative feelings without describing what they are. The statement appears to be about the kind of day it was when, in fact, it is an expression of the way the speaker is feeling. We cannot tell from this expression whether the speaker is feeling depressed, annoyed, lonely, humiliated or rejected.

Item 5: Expression a ... N. Another example of the subtle distinction introduced in item 8. The speaker is conveying strong negative feelings about himself ("I am a failure.") The statement does not describe his feelings, however.

Expression b ... N. Instead of taking it out on himself, the speaker blames the teacher. His value-judgment conveys negative feelings, but it does not describe what the speaker feels.

Expression c ... D. Conveys feeling by describing the speaker's emotional state as depressed and discouraged.

Expressions a and c illustrate the important difference between labeling oneself and describing one's feelings. Feelings can and do change. To say that I am now depressed and discouraged does not imply that I will or must always feel the same. However, if I label myself as a failure, if I truly think of myself as a failure, I increase the probability that I will act like a failure.

LESSON 7
HANDOUT 7:2

Discussion of Responses

One girl stated this important insight for herself this way, "I always thought I was a shy person. Now I have discovered that I am not shy although at times I feel shy." No longer did she keep herself from trying new things she wanted by reminding herself that she was too shy.

Item 3: Expression a ... D. A clear and specific description of how the speaker feels when around the other.

Expression b ... N. Although this conveys positive feeling toward the other it does not say that the speaker feels this way. To be a description of feeling, the statement should use, "I," "me," "my," or "mine" to make clear the feelings are in the speaker. Secondly, "you're a wonderful person" is a value-judgment which does not specify what feeling is behind it. (See Item 4.a)

Expression c ... N. The statement is not about the speaker and his feelings but refers to everybody. It is true that a feeling is named in the statement, but the speaker does not make clear the feeling is in him. A description of feeling must contain "I," "me," "my," or "mine."

Note how much more personal and warm you feel when another says to you that he likes you rather than everybody likes you. Do you find it more difficult to tell another, "I like you." or "Everybody likes you."?

Item 2: Expression a ... D. Conveys feeling by describing the feeling as one of inadequacy.

Expression b ... N. Careful! This sounds much the same as a. However, it really says the person is inadequate. The person labels himself as inadequate. True, he conveys negative feelings about himself, but he does not describe them.

This subtle difference was introduced because many people confuse feeling inadequate with being inadequate. A person may feel inadequate when teaching a certain subject and yet do an excellent job of it. Likewise, a person may feel adequate and competent in a subject and perform poorly.

One sign of emotional maturity may be when a person functions adequately while feeling inadequate. He does not let the feelings prevent him from doing the best he can because he knows the difference between feelings and performance.

LESSON 7
HANDOUT 7:2

Item 4: Expression a ... N. Conveys negative feelings about the organization without describing them. Talks about the condition of things in this organization and not about the speaker's inner state.

Expression b ... N. A rhetorical question that expresses a negative value-judgment about the organization. It certainly conveys some kind of negative feeling, but does not describe what it is.

Expression c ... D. A clear description of how the speaker feels in relation to his job. He feels afraid.

Expressions a and b are attacks or criticisms of the organization that could result from the kind of fear described in c. Notice expressions that convey anger turn out to result from fear. Many expressions of anger result from fear, hurt feelings, disappointment or loneliness, but because the basic feelings are not described, the other person does not understand the speaker's true feelings.

LESSON 8
HANDOUT 8:1

SCALE 1

Empathy in Interpersonal Processes
A Scale for Measurement

Level 1

The second person indicates, through speech or action, that he is not listening, understanding or is even aware of the feelings of the other person.

Examples: Joe: "I wish I could ind a job."
Tom: "Let's go skating tomorrow."

Ann: "I'm so glad, John is taking me to the show on Friday."
Mary: "Why don't you go to the show with Linda and me anymore?"

Level 2

The second person indicates, through speech or action, that he is interested in listening and understanding the feelings of the other person. However, the second person tends to respond to the wrong feeling or completely misses the depth of the feeling expressed by the other person.

Examples: Joe: "I really get upset when I think about her."
Tom: "You're better off without her."

Ann: "I don't know what I'll do now that I have to look after myself."
Mary: "I wouldn't worry. You can do lots of things."

Level 3

The second person's response expresses essentially the same meaning and level of feeling as the other person. However, the second person only responds to surface feelings and does not accurately express what the other person feels inside.

Examples: Joe: "I don't care if they have the party without me."
Tom: "It doesn't matter to you if you go to the party or not."

Ann: "I didn't need to take that course, anyway."
Mary: "That's right, you'll still pass without that course."

LESSON 8
HANDOUT 8:1

Level 4

The second person's response adds deeper feeling and meaning to what the other person has said.

Examples: Joe: "I don't care if they have the party without me."
Tom: "They should have been more concerned about hurting your feelings."

Ann: "I didn't need to take that course, anyway."
Mary: "You are worried that you failed that exam."

Level 5

The second person's responses indicate that he has a full accurate understanding of the other person's deepest feelings. The second person is often able to express feelings that the other person was unable to express.

Examples: Joe: "I don't care if they have the party without me."
Tom: "You just can't understand why they deliberately hurt your feelings."

Ann: "I didn't need to take that course, anyway."
Mary: "You are afraid that your friends will think less of you, if it turns out that you failed the exam."

LESSON 8
HANDOUT 8:2

COMMUNICATION OF EMPATHY

The first goal in communicating empathy is to make an interchangeable response. That is, to express the same feeling as the other person. A response which subtracts from what the person said can be viewed as a minus response, and is something less than interchangeable. A response which adds deeper meaning to what the person said is more than just interchangeable and may be seen as a plus.

The content of what the other person said may be integrated with the feeling, but it is the feeling on which we will make our assessment.

Responses can be rated as follows:

LEVEL

- | | |
|----|-------------------|
| 1. | - - (minus-minus) |
| 2. | - (minus) |
| 3. | Interchangeable |
| 4. | + (plus) |
| 5. | + + (plus-plus) |

Examples:

Person A: "I'm so mad at Jim for being an hour late for the dance."

Responses:

<u>Rating</u>	<u>Response</u>	
- -	"The dance wasn't any good anyway."	(Content only)
-	"An hour sure is a long time to wait."	(Content only)
Interchangeable	"It makes you feel like blowing up."	(Feeling only)
+	"It makes you feel like he doesn't care about you."	(Feeling only)
+	"When Jim is late like that it makes you feel as though he doesn't care about you."	(Feeling and Content)

LESSON 8
HANDOUT 8:3

SENTENCE STEMS

Express your real feelings

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I like | 16. Most women |
| 2. The happiest time | 17. I secretly |
| 3. I want to know | 18. In the future |
| 4. Backhome | 19. I worry |
| 5. I don't like | 20. The only trouble with me |
| 6. At night | 21. I wish |
| 7. Men usually | 22. I am best when |
| 8. The best | 23. My nerves |
| 9. What annoys me | 24. I love |
| 10. People | 25. Sometimes |
| 11. My mother-in-law | 26. If I could |
| 12. I feel | 27. What I want |
| 13. My greatest fear | 28. Marriage |
| 14. When I was younger | 29. Why can't I |
| 15. I can't | 30. I need |

LESSON 8
HANDOUT 8:4

Guidelines for the Communication of Empathy

You will be most effective in communicating empathy when:

1. in the beginning, you concentrate carefully on what the other person is saying, both verbally and non-verbally.
2. you initially concentrate upon responses that are interchangeable with those of the other person.
3. you respond in a language that is similar to that of the other person.
4. you respond in a feeling tone of voice which is similar to that of the other person.
5. you are responding to most things the other person says.

After mutual trust has developed:

6. you move tentatively toward adding deeper meaning to what the other person says.
7. you concentrate upon what is not being expressed by the other person.
8. you use the other persons behavior as a guideline to assess the effectiveness of your responses.

LESSON 10
HANDOUT 10:1A

Report A

Late yesterday a leather-jacketed, teenage hoodlum named Bolger, pistol-whipped an elderly pharmacist in his neighbourhood drugstore, scooped up some money, and made a mad dash straight into the arms of a passing police officer. Police recovered the loot after a short scuffle and took the youth to the police station to cool off.

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. Your group is to determine the facts of the above incident. You should begin with questions such as:
 - a. Who is involved?
 - b. What happened?
 - c. Where did the incident occur?
 - d. When did the incident take place (time)?
 - e. Who is to blame?
 - f. What conclusions can the group draw from the report?

LESSON 10
HANDOUT 10:1B

Reprot B

Yesterday, shortly before dinnertime, a half-starved youth named John K. Bolger was dragged to the Fifth Precinct lock - up and charged with armed robbery and felonious assault on the complaint of a store-owner who claimed that Mr. Bolger had attacked him and taken a few dollars from the firm's cash drawer. The cop who hauled Mr. Bolger to the station house had been sitting in a police cruiser infront of the store, at the time.

Instructions:

1. Your group is to determine the facts of the above incident. You should begin with questions such as:
 - a. Who is involved?
 - b. What happened?
 - c. Where did the incident occur?
 - d. When did the incident take place (time)?
 - e. Who is to blame?
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LESSON 10
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 - a. Who is involved?
 - b. What happened?
 - c. Where did the incident occur?
 - d. When did the incident take place (time)?
 - e. Who is to blame?
 - f. What conclusions can the group draw from the report?

LESSON 10
HANDOUT 10:2

Report

A person who gave his name as John K. Bolger and his age as 17, was brought by Patrolman Arthur Smith to the Fifth Precinct Station at 5:32 P.M. yesterday in handcuffs. Patrolman Smith reported that at 5:05 he had seen Bolger run out the door of the Daly Drugstore with a pistol in his hand, and that a second or two later the proprietor, William Daly, age 66, appeared, with blood on his forehead, shouting "Stop, thief!" According to Patrolman Smith, Mr. Daly reported that Bolger had struck him on the head with a pistol, taken \$15 from the cash register drawer, and fled through the front door. In Bolger's jacket pocket the police found \$15.

Discussion:

1. What is the view of the author in each report?
2. What techniques were applied to accomplish his view?
3. What were the results of the slanted stories?

LESSON 13
HANDOUT 13:1

Instructions for Broken Squares Exercise

The following exercise is based upon co-operation. This means that everyone must understand the problem and must believe that he can help in its solution. Everyone needs to think of the other person as well as himself.

Each person in the group is to take one envelope. These envelopes contain the pieces necessary to solve the task, however, pieces have been scrambled within the five envelopes

TASK - the group is to make five (5) squares of equal size from the pieces each member has received in the envelopes. The task is not completed until each member of the group has before him a perfect square. All squares must be of equal size.

RULES

1. No member of the group may speak.
2. No member of the group may ask for a card or signal in any way that he wants such a card.
3. Members can only give cards to each other.

LESSON 14
HANDOUT 14:1LOST-ON-THE-MOON EXERCISE
DECISION FORM

by Jay Hall

Instructions: You are in a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Due to mechanical difficulties, however, your ship was forced to land at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. During re-entry and landing, much of the equipment aboard was damaged and, since survival depends upon reaching the mother ship, the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200-mile trip. Below are listed the 15 items left intact and undamaged after landing. Your task is to rank order them in terms of their importance in allowing your crew to reach the rendezvous point. Place the number 1 beside the most important item, the number 2 beside the second most important, and so through number 15, the least important.

- _____ Box of Matches
- _____ Food Concentrate
- _____ 50 Feet of Nylon Rope
- _____ Parachute Silk
- _____ Portable Heating Unit
- _____ Two .45 Calibre Pistols
- _____ One Case Dehydrated Pet Milk
- _____ Two 100-lb. Tanks of Oxygen
- _____ Stellar Map (of the Moon's Constellation)
- _____ Life Raft
- _____ Magnetic Compass
- _____ 5 Gallons of Water
- _____ Signal Flares
- _____ First Aid Kit Containing Injection Needles
- _____ Solar-Powered FM Receiver-Transmitter

LESSON 14
HANDOUT 14:2N A S ADECISION BY CONSENSUS

by Jay Hall

Instructions

This is an exercise in group decision-making. Your group is to employ the method of Group Consensus in reaching its decision. This means the prediction for each of the 15 survival items must be agreed upon by each group member before it becomes a part of the group decision. Consensus is difficult to reach. Therefore, not every ranking will meet with everyone's complete approval. Try, as a group, to name each ranking one with which all group members can at least partially agree. Here are some guides to use in reaching consensus:

1. Avoid arguing for your own individual judgments. Approach the task on the basis of logic.
2. Avoid changing your mind only in order to reach agreement and avoid conflict. Support only solutions with which you are able to agree somewhat at least.
3. Avoid "conflict-reduction" techniques such as majority vote, averaging or trading in reaching decisions.
4. View differences of opinion as helpful rather than as a hindrance in decision-making.

On the "Group Summary Sheet" place the individual rankings made earlier by each group member. Take as much time as you need in reaching your group decision.

LESSON 14
HANDOUT 14:2

GROUP SUMMARY SHEET

INDIVIDUAL PREDICTIONS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Group
Box of Matches											
Food Concentrate											
50 Feet of Nylon Rope											
Parachute Silk											
Portable Heating Unit											
Two .45 Calibre Pistols											
One Case Dehydrated Milk											
Two 100-lb Tanks of Oxygen											
Stellar Map (of the Moon's Constellation)											
Life Raft											
Magnetic Compass											
5 Gallons of Water											
Signal Flares											
First Aid Kit Contain- ing Injection Needles											
Solar-Powered FM Receiver-Transmitter											

GROUP _____

LESSON 16
HANDOUT 16:1

INTERVIEWER INSTRUCTIONS

It has often been said that the most damaging effects of a modern, mechanized society such as ours, are pollution and dehumanization. Hardly a day goes by that we do not hear or read about some new area of our country that has been laid waste by the ravages of pollution. Yet, we may be thankful that popular opinion, in the fight against pollution, is quickly swinging to the side of the ecologist.

On the other hand, little is said or done about the wasted human potential, of people caught up in the struggle to survive in a modern, industrial society. Cities become a tangle of fences - those to keep people in and those to keep people out - where everyone is afraid of everyone else.

Many schools have also developed an impersonal atmosphere. Indeed, they have been accused of becoming people factories, where students are molded into boxes, stamped with a number and shipped out to employers at the end of Grade 12.

It is the hope of many people, that this whole process can be stopped in its tracks by the students themselves. If students resist being dehumanized, by talking, listening, trying to understand and helping each other, then it could come about.

Purpose

In this interview, it is hoped that you will find out more about how you as a student can listen to understand, and help other students.

Instructions;

1. You should interview this other student for about 25 minutes.
2. The other student has been instructed to begin the interview by discussing a topic which is important to him.
3. Your goal should be to talk to this student and try to understand as much as you can about him during the short interview.

LESSON 16
HANDOUT 16:2

STUDENT INSTRUCTIONS

It has often been said that the most damaging effects of a modern, mechanized society such as ours, are pollution and dehumanization. Hardly a day goes by that we do not hear or read about some new area of our country that has been laid waste by the ravages of pollution. Yet, we may be thankful that popular opinion in the fight against pollution, is quickly swinging to the side of the ecologist.

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It is the hope of many people, that this whole process can be stopped in its tracks by the students themselves. If students resist being dehumanized, by talking, listening, trying to understand and helping each other, then it could come about.

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. To get the interview started, you should select a topic which is important to you. Once you have begun, other important topics may also come into the conversation.
2. Whether you talk about very many of your feelings about these topics will probably depend on how willing the other student is to listen and try to understand you.
3. The interview should last about 25 minutes.
4. Remember, you should begin the interview.

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